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WEST GEORGIA COLLEGE

REVIEW

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The purpose of this publication is to provide encouragement for faculty research and to make available results of such activity. The *Review,* published annually, accepts original scholarly work and creative writing. West Georgia College assumes no responsibility for contributors' views. The style guide is Kate L. Turabian. *A Manual for Writers.* Although the *Review* is primarily a medium for the faculty of West Georgia College, other sources are invited.

An annual bibliography includes doctoral dissertations, major recitals and major art exhibits. Theses and articles in progress or accepted are not listed. A faculty member's initial listing is comprehensive and appears in the issue of the year of his employment. The abstracts of all master's theses and educational specialist's projects written at West Georgia College are included as they are awarded.

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METAPSYCHIATRY

by David J. Higgins*

Metapsychiatry is a method of therapy which goes beyond what has hitherto been the limit of the psychiatric discipline. It not only makes use of but also advocates a philosophic position and a religious faith. The philosophy, a phenomenological method resulting in a scheme reminiscent of the Seventeenth Century Spinoza, and the religious faith, a somewhat depersonalized Christianity, invite a critique which is unconcerned with the effectiveness of the therapy.

Apparently the fruit of many years of practice as a psychiatrist, two books were published by Thomas Hora in 1977 as an elucidation of his appraoch. The first, *Existential Metapsychiatry,* is expository; the second, *Dialogues in Metapsychiatry,* reports conversations among the devotees – with Hora the main protagonist.[1] This paper will critique three themes from this rather extensive matrix: the distinction between useful and invalid questions; the distinction between interpersonal action and omniaction; the meaning of person as it refers to God. The first theme is important for philosophy, the second for psychology and the third for religion.

AN OVERVIEW, *IN ABSTRACTO,* OF METAPSYCHIATRY

Metapsychiatry is a therapy which defines health as the realization of the good of God which is immediately present; all our problems are of our own making – most of them the result of self-confirmatory ideation and of dualistic and horizontal thinking. Realization is contrasted with mere experience: ". . .we cannot experience reality, we only experience our thoughts about reality." *(Metapsychiatry,* p. 24) Experience is subjective, unreliable, sensory, emotional and intellectual. Realizations are spiritual. Realizations cannot be expressed as mere statements about the truth, such as "God is good." Rather, realizations are recognized when we reach the PAGL point, characterized by peace, assurance, gratitude and love – and by harmony, wisdom, joy, health and benevolence. *(Metapsychiatry,* p.p. 25, 175; *Dialogues,* p. 93)

Realizing the good of God which is immediately present we become beneficial presences (not curious, influencing trespassers) manifesting spiritual love, which is a nonpersonal, unconditional benevolence. *(Metapsychiatry,* p. 17)

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[1] Thomas Hora, *Existential Metapsychiatry* (New York: The Seabury Press, 1977); *Dialogues in Metapsychiatry* (New York: The Seabury Press, 1977).

Self-confirmatory ideation is exemplified in the religious fanatic, who is committed to his own ego and not to the quest for truth; in the natural man, who identifies with his body and its pleasures and pains; in a self-indulgent emphasis on how one feels; in a belief in personal ownership; in seeking to blame; in asking what to do about problems and how to do it (as if self were in control and not God); and in fear — a mental preoccupation verbalized as, "*I am* afraid." *(Metapsychiatry,* pp. 15, 110, 116; *Dialogues,* pp. 182, 184)

Metapsychiatry shares with the stories of Zen and the abstractions of various idealisms a moderate success in forging a language which will communicate that which is beyond the horizontal and dualistic thinking which pervades culture and ordinary language. The dualism of self-other, of egoistic-altruistic — in general, the dualism of all forms of interaction is transcended by *omni-action.* Explanations in terms of cause-effect are replaced by *realizations. A* therapist is neither passive nor active, but reverent. Being arrogant-being a doormat is transcended in humility. Transcending the dualism of victim-victimizer is "the secret place of the most High." The combination of good-evil which appears in all material things is transcended in the good of God which is spiritual, unified and total. Freedom is neither dependent nor independent. As a final example, good students neither agree, nor disagree, nor daydream — they understand. *(Dialogues,* pp. 208, 164, 93, 192; *Metapsychiatry,* pp. 27, 61, 122)

USEFUL AND INVALID QUESTIONS

Unenlightened man traps himself in fruitless activity by asking questions which are invalid; they are futile and they foil God since they do not let God do His work in our lives. The following are examples: What's wrong? How do you feel? Who is to blame? What should I do? How should I do it? Why? Why is he this way?

The question about who is to blame for what happened is personalistic. "Nobody is really to blame. There is neither cause nor culprit."

What should I do? and How should I do it? are invalid because man is not really an operator, nor is there any process of repair involved, nor is there an operation of fixing.

The main difficulty with the question, Why? is that it derives from cause-effect thinking — a dualistic search after explanations — which interferes with realization. Further, to ask why is to seek for someone to blame, to seek the historical cause of the problem; even if we find it we still have the problem and furthermore may experience anger at the cause, say, at the parents of a troubled child, and that anger will prevent the peace and harmony of realization. *(Metapsychiatry,* pp. 39, 81, 91, 197)

Hora's use of the question Why? and its relation to cause-effect are typical of current usage. These meanings gained currency beginning about the time of Galileo with the rise of scientific method. But there is a more ancient significance to Why?, deriving from the Greeks, especially Aristotle who regarded it as a seeking for the middle term in a demonstration. This usage pervaded the

Middle Ages. Dante, for example, regarded questions as the initial impulse leading us to Truth — like a fox seeing its den from a distance we are led on by wonder, as expressed in the question Why? until we reach the Truth beyond which no truth hath range.[2]

About any demonstration we can ask, "Why is the conclusion true?" The answer is, "because of the middle term." If we continue the process in such wise as "Why should the middle term be accepted?" we engage in a series of successive questions which finds its ultimate cause, or ground, in the first cause which is the source of all truth, usually named God.

That moderns are alienated from this process of development from an initial wonder to an ultimate knowledge of a first cause is apparent from the strangeness which we experience when confronted with such deductive masterpieces as the *Summa Theologica.* In a sense Hora and Aquinas come to realizations virtually identical: an intelligent, loving source — the modern by denying the relevance of the question Why?, the ancient by affirming it.

Midway between Aquinas and Hora, Spinoza developed a system of geometrically rigid definitions and theorems beginning with the premise of a God who is one, who emanates in two modes, body and idea, and who ultimately recaptures human reality when it achieves the intellectual love of that originary God.[3] The parallels with Hora are many, if unacknowledged. Their philosophical methods are definitely different.

Hora's method is an outgrowth of the phenomenological tradition, especially as it appears in Heidegger, to whom the debt is acknowledged. In accord with this method the two meaningful questions are, What is the meaning of that which appears to be? and What is that which really is?

By means of the first question the person with a problem gets away from the level of phenomena and appearances — with its imaginings and its errors of thinking — and onto a level of understanding. For example, a couple had a dog with a prolapse of the rectum which would disappear when the couple ceased fighting. To ask, Why does this happen? is fruitless. To ask, What is the meaning of what seems to be going on here? yields the answer that there seems to be discord in the house. Then "to the second intelligent question — What is really going on here? — the answer is love and harmony and peace and mutual regard, because in divine reality that is the status quo: peace, harmony, assurance, gratitude, and love. As the couple began to see their situation in the context of jointly participating in the good of God, the fights disappeared, the discord disappeared, and the dog was healed. *(metapsychiatry,* p. 133)

INTERPERSONAL ACTION AND OMNIACTION

Interpersonal action and reaction cause humans their most frequent and intense problems. Countless methods have been proposed for alleviating these

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[2]Dante, *La Divina Commedia* (Milano: Ulrico Hoepli, 1955), Par. IV, 123-131.

[3]*Spinoza Selections,* ed. John Wild (New York: Chirles Scribner's Sons), *Ethic.*

distresses — all to no avail because they are all based on the faulty dualism that the self is distinct from others, and because they seek to heal by analysis in the dualistic terms of cause-effect. What is needed is the phenomenological method of asking the right questions and permitting the answer to realize itself.

What we come to realize is that each of us shares in life as the leaves of the maple tree share in its life. Apart from the tree is death. Interaction between leaves as between humans is an illusion. Uniquely sharing in the life of the tree, uniquely sharing in the loving understanding of divine reality, each, whether leaf or human, realizes omniaction.

Using another metaphor, unenlightened people interact like intertwining fingers; omniaction is represented by fingers pointed skyward approaching ever so close but not entangled. Control, dominance, influence, jealousy, ambition and competition are all the consequences of error in thought. Interaction appears to be; omniaction really is. *(Metapsychiatry,* p. 192; Dialogues, p. 211)

What then about the apparent interaction of one ego with another: "Man has no ego either; God, Mind is his ego. Once we realize that there is no interaction, then it becomes clear that infinite Mind is the ego of everyone; God is the 'I AM' of all of us, just as God is the same vital force pressing for manifestation in every flower, plant, or other life form everywhere in the universe." Hora thus interprets the description God gave to Moses: "I am who am" translates as God is the only one who can say "I am." Whenever humans say it they are slipping into the error of self-confirmatory thinking, the beginning of the problems they set up for themselves. "Personhood is just an idea. If people have personal problems, then they have invented them." *(Dialogues,* p p. 211, 103)

Inconsistency creeps into Hora's approach: whereas ego, personhood and self-confirmatory thinking are eschewed, yet a concept of self, of authentic self-hood, is made use of: "Existential psychotherapy endeavors to help man liberate himself from the confines of his social pretensions so that he may become what he truly is and what he always was — not another person but another self." *(Metapsychiatry,* pp. 54, 77, 102)

If personhood is a social pretension and not real, then every person is a liar and a lie at the same time. Interpersonal relationships consist of two fictitious characters trying to interact with each other. "We can sit in amazement contemplating the multitudes of pepple investing time and energy using interpersonal transaction for therapeutic purposes. . . .Interpersonal relationships can only improve the pretense, not the health of the persons." *(Metapsychiatry,* pp. 90, 101)

It is impossible here to illustrate the numerous cases presented in the texts. Generally speaking, the asking of the two meaningful questions leads to realization which takes the place of the interpersonal problem. For example, "In a transference relationship, whether it is beneficial or harmful, there is only self and other, patient and therapist. . . .But in real life there is much more, there is also the dimension of the spirit, the transcendent, the third party called GOD. That third party is present." *(Metapsychiatry,* p. 54)

Before turning to the third section on the personality of God, it might be relevant to suggest that Hora could resolve the ambiguity about the self by asserting its fictional status — either on an empirical basis as did Hume, or as a corollary to a system of rational thinking as did Spinoza.

NONPERSONAL GOD

Although Hora's metapsychiatry is sprinkled with quotations from the Bible, and although he grounds his existential realizations in Biblical truth, he claims that what he is doing is not strictly speaking religious. When a student asks if all these religious statements have to be accepted, Hora answers that they are interested only in reality.

What then about the God who is the third party in every apparent relationship? In many passages the nonpersonal character is posited. Since we are manifestations of Love-Intelligence, which is God, we are all capable of manifesting spiritual love which is nonpersonal, unconditional benevolence. "God is not a person. What is God? God is an *is.*" Again, this is Hora's interpretation of the name, "I am who am," given to Moses. Humans are to transcend personalities: ". . .when we see each other, we are seeing individual manifestations of the great 'I AM.'" And most ramifying, ". . .existence is a synonym for God." *(Metapsychiatry,* pp. 17, 85; *Dialogues,* pp. 17, 183)

But consistency is obviated. On the one hand, Hora suggests that our concept of God may be either." a personal one or an impersonal one: so long as intelligence is seen as the source of evertthing that is being done right. And again, Jesus "was neither human nor God. He was just at an advanced state of spiritual consciousness. Being God is not real for man, being human is also not real. But being a spiritual consciousness — that's real. And that's what he was." *(Metapsychiatry,* p. 145; *Dialogues,* p. 111)

On the other hand Hora can ask, "Who is this person called Love-Intelligence?" This is quite ambiguous when juxtaposed with a passage referring to Jesus at the point in his life when he achieved at-one-ment with the source saying," 'I and my Father are one' (John 10:30). 'I am in the Father, and the Father in me' (John 14:11). His personal sense of self has disappeared and from then on he lives an an emanation of Love-Intelligence. Those are the very passages referred to by those who like Athanasius believe in a distinction of persons within one God. *(Metapsychiatry,* pp. 58, 121)

It would be impossible to fault the claim that God is unconditionally loving intelligence; these attributes are as common in the traditional discussions as are those of pure act, supreme being or power. But to say that God is nonpersonal flaunts at least six centuries of early Christian attempts to delineate the three persons, Father, Son and Holy Spirit. The fact that different faiths and/or heresies define in different ways and either fight for or die for their respective claims would indicate that the persons are of considerable significance to those humans interested in transcendence. Perhaps psychological health can be achieved by realizing an impersonal loving intelligence, but if religious faith yields any truth — which it certainly does — then interest in the one truth would seem to require practitioners of metapsychiatry to recapitulate the

early Christian discussions. Here again the parallels with the Jewish Spinoza continue — but Christian living which shares in the mysteries of Trinity and Incarnation is also realization.

SINCERE STYLIZATION: BYRON AND THE HEROES OF *CHILDE HAROLD'S PILGRIMAGE*

by Mary Ferguson*

No other English poet is so neglected and pursued as George Gordon, sixth Lord Byron. Neglected in terms of his poetry, he is yet pursued relentlessly as a poet, as one whose life intermingles inextricably with his work. In both the nineteenth and the twentieth centuries few critics and fewer casual readers have expressed abiding interest in the stylistic material of Byronic poetry; however, almost everyone has been intrigued by the sweeping force of the Byronic personality. It is flatly impossible to imagine the work without the man. Diffused throughout the strained rhythms of his imperfect Romantic poetry, Byron and the multiple Byronic reflections of himself provide a seemingly inexhaustible source of interest to the rest of mankind.

This particular interest in Byron has existed from the publication of his first real success, *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*. Thrust with the Childe into fame, he appeared to the public as the perfect conception of a Romantic poet, stalking the ideal along melancholy paths. This public notion of Byron as the absolute Romantic persisted throughout the nineteenth century, so that he easily towered above Wordsworth, Shelley, Keats, and Coleridge in society's imagination. Typically, William Makepeace Thackeray noted in 1846 that Byron was still considered a "public god."[1] Dislodging a god is difficult, and when Matthew Arnold perceived Wordsworth to be a finer poet than Byron, he placed the author of *The Prelude* above the author of *Childe Harold* only after giving "the second ranking poet" markedly high praise. High praise seemed a small enough tribute to one thought to be the epitome of Romanticism.

Avid critical and public admiration of Byron did not disappear in the twentieth century, but its focus, while still remaining on the man and his shadows, shifted to the poet in *Don Juan* rather than in *Childe Harold*. Gradually, it was realized that Byron did not epitomize Romanticism; rather, he epitomized its problems. In 1924 G.R. Elliott noted of Byron that the other Romantics "were penetrated by the Romantic mood, and he was cloaked in it."[2] Foreshadowing the *Weitschmerz* and *mal du siecle* of Continental writers in the next generation, Byron could not reconcile the real and ideal. No

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[1]William Makepeace Thackery, quoted in Peter L.Thorsley, Jr.,*The Byronic Hero,* (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1962) p. 15.

[2]G.R. Elliott, "Bron and the Comic Spirit", *PMLA* 39 (1924), 900.

profound thinker, he yet knew and admitted the "toughness of facts" in reality.[3] Of all the problems associated with Romanticism, this admission of hard fact was perhaps the most difficult for the majority of Romantics to accept. For Byron, that acceptance ultimately meant that he had to live outside himself as well as within.

Within and without, his personality pervades his poetry, but often in numerous disguises. The poetry itself, including *Childe Harold,* is often distressing in quality compared to its quantity. There is some truth in T.S. Eliot's supposition that apparently Byron "never destroyed anything."[4] To destroy work so obviously containing parts of the self, however, would have been tantamount to destroying the self. Often flawed in the casing, the fragments of Byron nonetheless appeal to the reader in their own paradoxical vitality.

That vitality issues from Byron the man, one who is many in his bits of comedy and tragedy, inertia and action, real and ideal. It is totally characteristic of Byron the man to joke about the anguish which produced the magnificence of Canto III in *Childe Harold:* "I should, many a good day, have blown my brains out, but for the recollection that it would have given pleasure to my mother-in-law; and even *then*, if I could have been certain to haunt her — but I won't dwell upon these trifling family matters."[5] Of course, Byron meant his letters for publication. It must be realized, however, that the witty, public Byron is no more or less a pose than the private man.

Yet it is equally characteristic of Byron to write in a thoroughly tragic style about the creation of the same canto:

> I am a lover of Nature and an admirer of Beauty. I can bear fatigue and welcome privation, and have seen some of the noblest views in the world. But in all this — the recollections of bitterness, and more especially of recent and more home desolation, which must accompany me through life, have preyed the crashing of the Avalanche, nor the torrent, the mountain, the Glacier, the Forest, nor the Cloud, have for one moment lightened the weight upon my heart, nor enabled me to lose my own wretched identity in the majesty, and the power, and the Glory, around, above, and beneath me.[6]

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[3]Hoxie N. Fairchild, *The Romantic Quest* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1931), pp. 362-363. Elsewhere in his book Fairchild makes a brilliant assessment of the essential Byron: "Too idealistic to refrain from blowing bubbles, and too realistic to refrain from pricking them" (p. 370).

[4]T.S. Eliot, *On Poetry and Poets* (New York: Farrar, Straus, & Cudahy, 1957), p. 224.

[5]George Gordon, Lord Byron, Works: *Letters and Journals,* ed. Rowland E. Prothero (London: John Murray, 1898-1901), IV, 49. Hereinafter cited as *Letters and Journals.*

[6]Byron, *Letters and Journals,* III, 364.

Written to his sister Augusta, this private passage suggests the malancholy inherent in the poet, but it does not belie the epistolary humor. Rather, its elaborate style merely implies the breadth and variety of the verbal gestures to come from the mind of Byron. He was a psychological paradox, and so, a poetical mystery.

To examine the paradox which is Byron, it is useful to examine the Byronic personalities in *Childe Harold,* originally published in three separate parts, Cantos I-II (1812), III (1817), and IV (1818). Written between the crucial years of 1809 and 1817, the poem conveys much vital information about the boy poet maturing into the man. Jerome McGann has suggested that "Byron composed the poem as a running record of his own life and thought in that period."[7] McGann's supposition is surely correct, but the implications of what lies behind the written record are vastly more important.

Behind the melancholy and the struggle of *Childe Harold* is the process of sincere stylization, a process unleashed by the poet's unconscious to bring forth his passive guilt into active sin.[8] The final, mature, moderate affirmation of the poem represents the success of this process: unconscious, passive guilt can only be used creatively in a limited fashion simply because it is not known; factual, active guilt can be used as a viable part of the creative process, and ultimately, of life itself. Indeed for the mature Byron, such conscious, active guilt has become not only viable but essential to both his art and his life.

Sincere stylization is the process by which Byron's unconscious guilt surfaces and becomes a part of his art. This process consists of the psychological pressures from childhood events which lead the poet to commit incest with his sister, to enter into a disastrous marriage, and finally, to exile himself from England. In the poem *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage,* which is the record of Byron's feelings as well as his travels during the years of this psychological process, sincere stylization appears as the pivot around which a Byronic myth becomes a Byronic fact. Harold, the hero of the first two cantos of the poem, is a myth, a stylized personality who has consciously suffered what the real Byron has only unconsciously experienced: the guilt of active sin. Thus, the

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[7] Jerome J. McGann, *Fiery Dust* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1968), p. viii.

[8] In the context of this article, the terms"unconscious" and "passive" are inextricably linked as attributes of Byron's guilt before the process of sincere stylization occurs. Byron's Oedipal conflicts and sexual encounters with May Gray are prime causes of his unconscious guilt; however, he is unquestionably the passive figure in these childhood encounters. As sincere stylization occurs and Byron's guilt becomes conscious, he must break from this passivity and become an active figure in guilt. He does so by actively initiating the incest with Augusta. Thus, Byron's guilt as he writes Cantos I and II is both unconscious and passive, and is opposed to his conscious, active guilt in Cantos III and IV, written after the process of sincere stylization has occurred.

hero of the first cantos is a stylization, but because the poet is actually suffering deep guilt subconsciously, the hero is also, paradoxically, sincere. By the time Byron composes the last cantos of the poem, however, his own guilt has surfaced through psychological pressure and has emerged in the form of the incest. Therefore, Byron-Harold, the hero of the last cantos, is clearly sincere in his conscious suffering, clearly a product of the completed psychological process. The myth of the suffering sinner has become reality.

That myth originated in Byron's infancy and childhood, which, remarkably enough, could be studied as a textbook case for neurotic and Oedipal conflicts. Born into a family known for violence and insanity, Byron inherited his title from the "Wicked Lord" and was the scion of "Mad Jack." John Byron, an attractive wastrel, abandoned his wife and son when the baby was two and died when the boy was three. Even before the abandonment, John Byron had had as little as possible to do with son George, but somehow he had always retained the affection of his wife. Thus, Byron's earliest years fit perfectly into an Oedipal pattern, as the boy had virtually no father to imitate and yet did have a standing rival for his mother.

That mother, Catherine Gordon Byron, alternated between spoiling her son and berating him for a physical deformity, a club foot which had afflicted him from birth. Aggressive and rather vulgar, she casually passed from fits of irritation to waves of affection. Byron recalled that when enraged with him, she would either mock his lame foot or shout, "Ah, you little dog, you are a Byron all over; you are as bad as your father!"[9] Apparently, however, it was this likeness to his father which frequently caused his mother to follow her tantrums with endearments, so that the emotional pattern of the boy's life was haphazard indeed. Gradually, perhaps in self-defense, he became narcissistic, in love with an image of himself, and eventually, in love with the person most reminiscent of himself — his only sister.

Beyond the narcissism, however, beyond the Oedipal conflict, Byron's psyche was already turned toward the uncommon crime he would later commit and already bent into the unconscious and passive guilt which lay directly beneath sincere stylization. Long before the boy entered Harrow and adolescence, he had already experienced a sexual affair which was markedly unusual, almost as distinctive as incest. At the age of nine and perhaps before, Byron had been frequently sexually assaulted by his Calvinist nurse, May Gray. Recalling his childhood, the mature Byron noted, "My passions were developed very early — so early, that few people would believe me, if I were to state the period, and the facts which accompanied it."[10] Undoubtedly, this oblique reference is to May Gray, who was finally dismissed after the family lawyer discovered her actions.

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[9] Byron on his mother, quoted in Leslie A. Marchand, *Byron: A Biography* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1957), I. 29.

[10] Byron, *Letters and Journals,* V, 450.

The importance of this relationship between Byron and his nurse cannot be overestimated. The ages of five and twelve bracket the latent stage in a child's psychological growth, but for Byron there was, in effect, little or no sexual latency. It was almost as if he were held prey to all the neurotic and Oedipal conflicts which should have lain dormant during a part of his boyhood. Sexually, he was caught in the throes of the rivalry with his father for his mother's affection and in the midst of the narcissism which led him to an unnatural interest in his sister. Finally, he was suspended in a state of unconscious guilt over his passive sexual involvement with May Gray. It was just this guilt, abetted by the other conflicts, which Byron had to bring to the surface in his life and in his peotry. It was just this guilt which led him to create the myth of Harold and to turn that myth into the reality of Byron.

As an adult, Byron plunged into this process of change. In doing so, he exhibited a number of neurotic traits. Sexual seductiveness is probably his most noted, if not his most notable, characteristic. Between 1812 and 1815 the strikingly handsome lord committed incest with Augusta Leigh and had affairs with Caroline Lamb, Lady Oxford, and a rather large number of unidentified admirers. At the same time he managed a platonic romance with Lady Webster and an erratic courtship of Annabella Milbanke. Yet this is the same Byron who, after marring Annabella, told her "with every appearance of aversion" how he hated sleeping in the same bed with a woman.[11] Clearly, Byron's sexual behavior included aberrations stemming from his childhood.

Simultaneously, Byron displayed style in dress in his role as a Regency gentleman, and energy and forcefulness in his athletic feats, including his famous swim across the Hellespont. Compensating for his club foot with his elegant appearance and athletic demeanor, Byron conveyed a sense of hypermasculinity to his public and quite possibly, to himself. That image of hypermasculinity undoubtedly aided him in his romantic affairs, but it did not fully disguise his neuroses.

During the year of Byron's marriage, traits of high emotionality, aggressiveness, and narcissism dominated his personality. According to Abraham Zaleznik and David Moment, such traits force an individual "to move toward the source of instinctual danger, in counterphobic sense, instead of withdrawing."[12] They drive him, in other words, to the kind of seemingly senseless tragedy Byron sought in incest and a loveless marriage. The year 1815 was thus a crucial period for the poet, as it both directly followed his affair with Augusta and immediately preceded his self-imposed exile from England. Indeed, 1815 marked the beginning of Byron's conscious awareness of his own active guilt. Reacting from this new knowledge, he verbally abused both Augusta and Annabella in frequent drunken rages. His emotionality and ag-

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11 Edith Colburn Mayne, *The Life and Letters of Anne Isabella, Lady Noel Byron,* 2nd ed. (London: Constable, 1929), p. 161.

12 Abraham Zaleznik and David Moment, *The Dynamics of Interpersonal Behavior* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1964), p. 228.

gressiveness tended, however, to proceed in particular against his wife. More and more, this emotionality was linked to Byron's narcissism, a self-love which far exceeded an appreciation of his own beauty. At its worst, this narcissism verged on the psychotic, so that the poet was totally unable to appreciate the value of other people.

This combination of high emotionality and extreme narcissism produced a bizarre incident one night in this year. Byron lay in bed with his wife, who recalled the episode this way:

> Once between three and four A.M. he fancied a step on the stairs, and lay afraid to stir, suffering so much that I said I would get up and see. He let me, though I was within three or four months of my confinement — but I am convinced it was because he thought *himself* the only one against whom harm was intended.[13]

The danger, of course, existed only within Byron's mind. Yet his treatment of his wife, like his habit of sleeping with a loaded pistol by his side, visibly indicated his paranoia as he struggled with conscious self-awareness.

Myth had become reality for Lord Byron, but he had already publicized the myth in the highly stylized title character of Cantos I and II of the 1811 *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*. As the hero in a poem, Harold can be called sincere in one overt sense, in his obvious similarities to his creator; however, it has long been a critical moot point as to whether or not Harold is sincere as an expression of his creator's real feelings. Melancholy and guiltridden, the early Harold is a black portrait of despair:

> And now Childe Harold was sore sick at heart,
> And from his fellow Bacchanals would flee;
> 'Tis said, at times the sullen tear would start
> But Pride congealed the drop within his ee:
> Apart he stalked in joyless reverie,
> And from his native land resolved to go,
> And visit scorching climes beyond the sea;
> With pleasure drugged, he almost longed for woe,
> And e'en for change of scene would seek the shades below. (I, 6)[14].

As a young aristocrat on his first Grand Tour, Byron, for all his poses, simply had not led such a wasted life — not in 1809, when he started these verses merely for recreation. Consciously, actively, he had not sinned against himself or others.

Despite this conscious innocence, however, the Harold of I-II is sincere as a metaphor for Byron's guilt. Welling from the unconscious, the guilt is passive, the result of his having been sexually sinned against. Its presence in the un-

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13 Lady Byron, quoted in Mayne, p. 190.

14 George Gordon, Lord Byron, *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage, in Works: Poetry,* ed. Earnest Hartley Coleridge, rev. ed. (London: John Murray, 1898-1904), II, 18-19. All further canto and stanza citations refer to volume II in this edition.

conscious forces Byron to create Harold as a myth of black guilt, but a myth which is ultimately sincere. Harold is the worst part of Byron, a part the rational man cannot effectively use because he cannot rationally grasp it. He has not sinned, but he is guilty.

With Byron as his narrator, Harold appears later in Canto I as a figure of Cain, a cursed sinner destined to wander without hope of comfort:

> Yet to the beauteous form he was not blind,
> Though now it moved him as it moves the wise;
> Not that Philosophy on such a mind
> E'er deigned to bend her chastely-awful eyes:
> But Passion raves herself to rest, or flies;
> And Vice, that digs her own voluptuous tomb,
> Had buried long his hopes, no more to rise:
> Pleasure's palled Victim! life-abhorring Gloom
> Wrote on his faded brow curst Cain's unresting doom. (I, 83)

Here the connection between Harold and Byron grows somewhat stronger. The wanderer cursed with "Cain's unresting doom" is especially pertinent to Byron. May Gray had lectured him on the strict tenets of Calvinism, with its theory of pre-destination, during his childhood. With that upbringing and the remembrance of the passive sexual acts of that time, the emotional Byron could only have believed himself a kind of Cain, damned before he was born. Thus, he instinctively imbued Harold with that same damnation, a condemnation the rational Byron would later set out to earn.

While the reference to Cain in stanza 83 marks a definite link between the two Byronic heroes of *Childe Harold,* it does not, by any means, permanently solidify their relationship. Harold is still and will always be bound to the guilt of his own making, to the vice which has "buried long his hopes, no more to rise." Byron still remains consciously free of such vice. Just as importantly, he remains free to develop, while Harold is fixed in despair. Fascinated with the idea of Harold, Byron had to create him. No amount of fascination, however, can save Harold from ultimately being what Kenneth Bruffee bluntly calls a "melodramatic showpiece."[15] His reputation as "Pleasure's called Victim" is simply too much to believe. It cannot long satisfy his creator.

Even as early as Canto II, Byron has a tendency to forget Harold, and then remember him with a start:

> But where is Harold? shall I then forget
> To urge the gloomy Wanderer O'er the wave?
> Little recked he of all that Men regret;
> No loved-one now in feigned lament could rave;
> No friend the parting hand extended gave,
> Ere the cold Stranger passed to other climes:
> But Harold felt not as in other times
> And left without a sigh the land of War and Crimes. (II, 16)

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15 Kenneth Bruffee, "The Synthetic Hero and the Narrative Structure of *Childe Harold* III," *Studies in English Literature,* 6, (1966), 670.

By admitting that he has almost forgotten the title personage of his poem, Byron vividly depicts the gulf between his creation and himself. They are subliminally linked inextricably, but on the surface they are only connected by similarities of appearance and their common resemblance to Cain. While both are young aristocrats traveling through war-torn Europe, there is not real, conscious relationship between poet and character. Andrew Rutherford has suggested that in these first cantos Byron and Harold "co-exist but do not interact."[16] Only mutual guilt will cause the two heroes to interact, and only through interaction will Byron be able to move past his childhood neuroses into new creativity.

It is worth noting that the almost-forgotten Harold is precisely the same affected misanthrope who appeared in Canto I. Thus, it is appropriate that he be reintroduced with the words, "Little recked he of all that Men regret." Just as Harold recked little but sinful pleasure in the opening stanzas of Canto I, so now he counts on even less than that. Presumably, all that is left to him by now are his guilty memories, the specific details of which the reader never learns. This vagueness of detail accounts for the lack of dramatic tension in these cantos, which are, perhaps, finally best labelled as description.[17] Harold's mysterious stagnation prevents them from being anything else.

Nonetheless, the poem was a tremendous success. Having published it after returning to England in 1811, Byron found his public in almost the entire country. Varying from restrained admiration to hysterical adulation, the public reaction lifted the young lord to his godlike status. Edward Bostetter has noted that the poem made its creator "overnight the expression of the English libido, so long repressed by religion, government, and war."[18] As the mythical expression of public desire, *Childe Harold* gave the jaded aristocracy a new glamor and meaning, gave the masses an escape from humdrum routine, and gave the Puritan middle class an evil (Meaning Byron) to be vicariously enjoyed and yet reformed.

Temporarily delighting in this success, Byron raced through society, but the psychological guilt which was the basis of his melancholy revived within him and returned him to the process of sincere stylization. Having made his myth, Byron proceeded to live it out in truth. He committed incest with Augusta, entered into a catastrophic marriage with Annabella, and found himself in a public disgrace which led to a permanent exile. Following these events was Canto III of *Childe Harold,* composed on Lake Geneva under Shelley's influence in 1816. Canto IV, with Byron himself as its sole source, followed in 1817.

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16 Andrew Rutherford, *Byron: A Critical Study* (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1961), p. 33.

17 William H. Marshall, *The Structure of Byron's Major Poems* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1962), p. 39.

18 Edward E. Bostetter, *The Romantic Ventriloquists* (Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1963), P. 275.

By the events leading to his exile from England, Byron is able to be with Harold as a figure of deserved guilt and anguish in Canto III.

> Yet must I think less wildly: — I have thought
> Too long and darkly, till my brain became,
> In its own eddy boiling and o'erwrought,
> A whirling gulf of phantasy and flame:
> And thus, untaught in youth my heart to tame,
> My springs of life were poisoned. 'Tis too late!
> Yet am I changed; though still enough the same
> In strength to bear what Time can not abate,
> And feed on bitter fruits without accusing Fate. (III, 7)

The incestuous affair has justified Byron's guilt and completed his unconscious quest for an Oedipal relationship. The psychological trap sprung on him by his parents and May Gray has closed out any possibility of his being a good man in any accepted social sense; now he has made himself worthy of that trap. Bertrand Russell has observed this Byronic sense of worthiness in evil, of the pride of a man who fits himself into "the romantic style of Ghibelline Chiefs, cursed by God and Man as they trampled their way to splendid downfall."[19] For Byron romantic evil is even more satisfying. Perfected in sin, he can now reach across his deliberate experience to create a fine quilt in Cantos III and IV.

As he discovers this new knowledge of his own Romantic personality, Byron comes to realize that Harold has become a superfluous personage in what purports to be his poem. With Byron consciously able to assume his burden of guilt, Harold has ceased to function as a figure of sublimation. Moreover, because the sated Harold cannot effectively develop in any direction, he cannot come to serve Byron in some other capacity. Instead, he must be absorbed into the poet, who is ready to become the sole hero of the work.

In the last stanza in which Harold is mentioned by name, he is a figure already being absorbed into the greater personality of the poet:

> Thus Harold inly said, and passed along,
> Yet not insensible to all which here
> Awoke the jocund birds to early song
> In glens which might have made even exile dear:
> Though on his brow were graven lines austere,
> And tranquil sterness, which had ta'en the place
> Of feelings fierier far but less severe —
> Joy was not always absent from his face,
> But o'er it in such scenes would steal with transient trace. (III, 52)

This "Harold" who experiences, however briefly, a kind of tranquility and joy is obviously not the stagnant and melancholy Harold of the first cantos.

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[19] Bertrand Russell, "Byron," *A History of Western Philosophy* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1945), rpt. in Paul West, ed., *Byron: A Collection of Critical Essays* (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1963), p. 153.

Rather, what the poet here calls "Harold" is clearly a description of the mature Byron himself, a man "not insensible to all which here/Awoke the jocund birds to early song." It is impossible to conceive of the original Harold as being sensitive to the jocund songs of birds. The character, in everything but name, has become absorbed into the creator.

Further proof of this absorption appears in the next several stanzas, ending with a reference to the dearest of "Harold's" loves, a love "Which unto his was bound by stronger ties/Than the church links withal" (III, 55). This reference to ties beyond those of marriage suggests the bonds of blood, the bonds between Byron and Augusta. At the time Canto III was being written, Byron still considered Augusta his dearest love, and so the Byron-Harold of stanza 55 does everything but mention her by name. Following this stanza, there is a break in the action of the poem in the form of a song about the Rhine. Following that song, there is no further mention of Childe Harold by name in the poem. In every way, poet and pilgrim are one.

Finally knowing his guilt, Byron is able to live with it in Canto IV, if not to absolve it in any peom. Similarly, he learns to live without a reconciliation between the real and the ideal. Essentially, this process of living, of enduring becomes a value in itself, an affirmation out of negation.[20] The effort of the pilgrimage itself is a positive fact in both senses of the adjective. The effort is difficult, but in his new conscious honesty, Byron will admit no easy answers in a world of fact.

Early in this last canto, he squarely admits his responsibility for his actions:

> My name from out the temple where the dead
> Are honoured by the Nations — let it be —
> And light the Laurels on a loftier head!
> And be the Spartan's epitaph on me —
> "Sparta hath many a worthier son than he."
> Meantime I seek no sympathies, nor need —
> The thorns which I have reaped are of the tree
> I planted, — they have torn me, — and I bleed:
> I should have known what fruit would spring from such a seed. (IV,10)

Actually, Byron is not as responsible for his sins as he declares himself to be. Quite possibly, he should have known "what fruit would spring from such a seed," but the planting of that incestuous seed was at least partially caused by psychological pressures of which he consciously knew nothing. The process of sincere stylization hinges on that unconsciousness. Nevertheless, it is encouraging that Byron can now bear his guilt without flinching. It is a sign of his full maturity.

In this maturity Byron slowly realizes the factual values for which he is searching. One of these values is endurance, the ability to live life as what McGann calls a string of "consecutive vital particularities"[21] Byron learns this value by observing the harsh reality of nature (a part of nature not often seen by Romantics):

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[20] McGann, p. 38.
[21] McGann, p. 38.

Existence may be borne, and the deep root
Of life and sufferance make its firm abode
In bare and desolated bosoms: mute
The camel labours with the heaviest load,
And the wolf dies in silence, — not bestowed
In vain should such example be; if they,
Things of ignoble or of savage mood,
Endure and shrink not, we of nobler clay
May temper it to bear, — it is but for a day. (IV, 21)

As the camel and the wolf bear their burdens, so man, the creation of "nobler clay," must bear his. Most of existence will be thus burdensome, but at times there will be those vital particularities, moments of personal energy, and these are life. Made worthy by the effort of endurance, such particularities flashed before Byron in occasional moments with Augusta at their family home in Newstead, with his later love Teresa Guiccioli in Italy, and even with his best friend John Cam Hobhouse in Greece. Those moments could not be taken away.

The other value which Byron finds in this canto is the ability to reason. At this time, Byron is alone. Left to himself and to his personal, now rational responsibility for his sins, he yet finds a moderate optimism in this responsibility of reason:

Yet let us ponder boldly — 'tis a base
Abandonment of reason to resign
Our right of thought — our last and only place
Of refuge; this, at least, shall still be mine:
Though from our birth the Faculty divine
Is chained and tortured — cabined, cribbed, confined,
And bred in darkness, lest the Truth should shine
Too brightly on the unprepared mind.
The beam pours in — for Time and Skill will couch the blind. (IV,127)

It is as if in disillusionment, Byron has found self-confidence.[22] The right of reason and understanding is his now as it never was in the earlier cantos. "The beam pours in," and he can reason his way to ever increasing knowledge of himself and his world. With this sureness of increasing knowledge and the ability to endure the sorrow as well as the joy in life, Byron is now possessed of two worthwhile values, neither of which conflicts with the reality of facts. Endurance is real, and so is the ability to reason. Together, they have given Byron a sense of restrained optimism.

That sense of optimism is, as McGann suggests, celebrated in the address to the ocean in the closing stanzas of the poem.[23] Byron has loved the ocean, and on its waves he has experienced some of those energetic moments which

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22 Bostetter, p. 277.
23 McGann, p. 136.
24 Thorslev, p. 16.

are life. Moreover, he now regards the ocean as the epitome of endurance, as something which persists through good and evil alike:

> Roll on, thou deep and dark blue Ocean — roll!
> Ten thousand fleets sweep over thee in vain;
> Man marks the earth with ruin — his control
> Stops with the shore; — upon the watery plain
> The wrecks are all thy deed, nor doth remain
> A shadow of man's ravage, save his own,
> When, for a moment, like a drop of rain,
> He sinks into thy depths with bubbling groan —
> Without a grave — unknelled, uncoffined, and unknown. (IV, 179)

If Byron murmurs, "The wrecks are all thy deed" in stanza 179, he also cries, "And I have loved thee, Ocean" in 184. His point is that the sea, the "deep and dark blue Ocean," will endure, whatever its momentary traits may be. At times it appears as ruinous to man; at times it seems delightful to him. Always, however, it persists, and in the very fact of persistence is Byron's reason for celebration. Like the waves of the ocean, he, too, may keep moving. From the open, poetical anguish of *Childe Harold* he will move to open, poetical comedy in *Don Juan,* so that the end here is also a beginning.

The Romantic age was the last great age of heroes, of Washington, Wellington, Nelson, and Napoleon, of men who became myths while they yet lived.[24] Lord Byron was one of those heroes, a man who worked legends of himself into his poetry and so became inextricable from his art. *Childe Harold* contains a number of these poetic legends, Byronic heroes revolving about the process of sincere stylization, myths and facts intermingling in a slow straightening of confusion into order. Separately and even together, these Byronic personalities provided the poet with no panacea for his psychological and artistic problems, but they did appear to him as pieces of endurance in a world of hard fact. By frequently extending and refining these reflections of himself, Byron was able to continue his pilgrimage in life with some affirmation long after he realized he would find no final answer to existence. That he endured at all with such knowledge was a real and uplifting triumph. The triumph was small but it was real, and to Byron, reality was ever most important.

CALCULATION OF ATMOSPHERIC GAS LIFETIMES FOR VARIOUS BODIES IN THE SOLAR SYSTEM

by Ben deMayo*

INTRODUCTION — In our solar system, one can find a wide range of atmospheres surrounding the planets and their satellites. The formation, development, and stability of these atmospheres is of great interest to astronomers, meterologists, atmospheric physicists, and biologists. In this study, a simple model was used to investigate the effects on the atmospheres of real and hypothetical celestial objects of the mass of particular gas molecules and of the object's mass, radius and solar distance.

METHOD — Several factors affect the retention of a gas molecule by a planet or satellite. The effectiveness of this retention can be characterized by a time t necessary for 1/e or 36.8% of the gas to escape from the atmosphere of the planet. Unless there is a large replenishing source on the planet, t must be greater than several hundred thousand years for the gas to be a stable constituent of the planet's atmosphere.

Dole[1] gives an expression for the escape time t, after Jeans[2] and Jones[3], as

$$t = [\bar{v}^{-3} / 2g^2R] \exp (3gR\bar{v}^2)$$

Where v is the rms speed of the gas molecule, g is the acceleration of gravity on the planet, and R is the planetary radius. Note that

$$g = GM/R^2$$

where G is the universal gravitation constant and M is the planet's mass. Let us assume as f first approximation and $\bar{v}$ is related to the temperature as

$$\bar{v} = [3kT/m]^{1/2}$$

where k is Boltzmann's constant, T is the absolute temperature of the gas, and m is the mass of the gas molecule. Note that the illuminance reaching the planet is[4]

$$E \propto L/r^2$$

where L is the luminosity of the planet's star and r is the distance between the planet and star; from the sun, L = 1. If we assume that I is proportional to

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1 Dole, S. H., *Habitable Planets for Man,* 2nd ed. American Elsevier Press, New York, 1979, p. 34.

2 Jeans, J.H., *The Dynamical Theory of Gases.* Cambridge University Press, London, 1916.

3 Jones, J.E., *Transactions of the Cambridge Philosophical Society 22, 535* (1925).

4 Dole, op. cit. p. 64.

E, and that T for the Earth's upper atmosphere is around 2000°K[5], we can combine these to obtain a reasonably accurate expression for t in terms of the planet's mass, solar distance, and radius, and the molecule's mass:

$$t = [288.223[\cdot [R/r\sqrt{m}[^3 \cdot [1/M^2[\cdot \exp (3.755Mr^2/m/R) - 17.273$$
$$25)Y \quad (1)$$

where r is given in A.U., M and R are in terms of the Earth's mass and radius, and m is in amu.

The expression for t can now be used to do the following:
1) for several gases of interest, evaluate t for the planets and satellites of the solar system, 2) "Move" the Earth about in the solar system to determine the effect on t of distance from the sun, and 3) find the limits on planetary radius and mass at different distances from the sun for a "habitable atmosphere".

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION – First, let us see what the expression (1) for the escape time t yields for the present situation for planets and satellites. Table 1 and Figure 1 show these results for the planets Mercury, Venus, Earth, and Mars; the moon; the Galilean satellites of Jupiter and Titan, which is a satellite of Saturn. For the Jovian planets (Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, and Neptune), the values for t are greater than 10^{200} years for all gases. The planetary parameters of Pluto are too uncertain for a meaningful calculation.

Note the following: 1) Both the moon and Mercury have little or no atmosphere, for different reasons – Mercury because of its closeness to the sun and the moon because of its small mass. 2) The gases of Mars' and Venus' atmospheres are shown to have similar escape times, even though we know that the atmospheres are vastly different. This emphasizes that other factors besides those given in expression (1) are important in the escape of a gas from a planet's atmosphere. One of these factors is the condensation of the gas on the planet; a low surface temperature is the primary factor here. Mars' surface temperature is cold enough to condense not only H_2O, but also CO_2. Venus, on the other hand, has a surface temperature of over 700° F due to its runaway greenhouse effect. 3) Venus and Earth have very different escape times, even though their similarity of mass, radius, and distance from the sun might at first glance suggest otherwise. 4) The high escape times of the Galilean satellites and Titan may be misleading because of condensation effects. However, it is known that Titan has an atmosphere denser than that of Mars[6]. Furthermore, Ganymded and Io are also thought to possess atmospheres.[7] 5)

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5 Dole, op. cit. p. 36.

6 Hunten, D.M., "Titan's Atmosphere and Surface", C.M. Ponnamperuma, ed. *In Chemical Evolution of the Giant Planets.* Academic Press, New York, 1976, pp. 27-45.

7 Carlson, R.W., 1976. "Atmospheres of Outer Planet Satellites". E.W. Greenstadt, M. Dryer, and D.S. Intriligator, eds. *In Exploration of the Outer Solar System.* American Institute of Aeronautics and Astronautics, New York, 1976, pp. 85-112.

The large t values for the Jovian planets reflect their large masses. A snowball effect could initially have led to this as the giant planets accumulated hydrogen, became more massive, and accumulated more hydrogen. 6) More detailed calculations have been reported[8] that take into consideration such things as the nature of the atmosphere, charge exchange, and solar wind, when these are adequately known. Nevertheless the present models, agrees fairly well with them and is more useful in situations where all of the necessary imput factors are not well known.

One question that can be investigated easily with the present model is, "What would be the effect on Earth's atmosphere if it were located at a different distance from the sun than it is now?" Figure 2 shows the results of such a calculation. We can see that Earth would have a denser atmosphere than Mercury, Venus, or Mars if it were located at their positions, mainly because of its larger mass.

Another question that can be investigated is one of the minimum mass of an object necessary to hold appreciable amounts of water (and thus be "habitable"). Let us take a value of $t = 10^{22}$y for H_2O, which is close to the value of $t = 2.7 \times 10^{22}$y for H_2O on Earth. Also let us choose the density range of the planet to be between 0.6 g/cm^3 (the lowest of any celestial object is the 0.7 g/cm^3 of Saturn) and 7 g/cm^3 (the density of pure iron is 7.8 g/cm^3). For comparison, Earth's density is 5.5 g/cm^3. Figure 3 shows that the Galilean satellites, Titan, and Earth all have the *potential* of accumulating "habitable" amounts of water in their atmospheres; Callisto, Europa, and Io all havemust densities above 0.6 g/cm^3 to do so. An object of Earth's mass could be located up to 1.4 A.U. or as close as 0.95 A.U. from the sun for the minimum or maximum densities, respectively, and still have $t = 10^{22}$y. At 0.5 A.U., the maximum density object would be 7 times Earth's mass; the minimum density object would be 23 times Earth's mass. For 5 A.U., on the other hand, the object would be 0.006 times Earth's mass and 0.02 times Earth's mass for the maximum and minimum density cases.

SUMMARY — An expression for the escape time of a gas from a planet or satellite has been derived and used to investigate 1) present planetary atmospheres, 2) the atmosphere of an earthsized planet at various distances from the sun, and 3) the mass limits of objects in the solar system with possible water retaining atmospheres.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT — The author would like to thank Herman W. Boyd and Eric V. Eslinger for critically reviewing the manuscript. This study was done as part of the author's participation in a short-course entitled "Origins of Life", directed by Dr. C.M. Ponnamperuma, and sponsored by the National Science Foundation and the American Association for the Advancement of Science.

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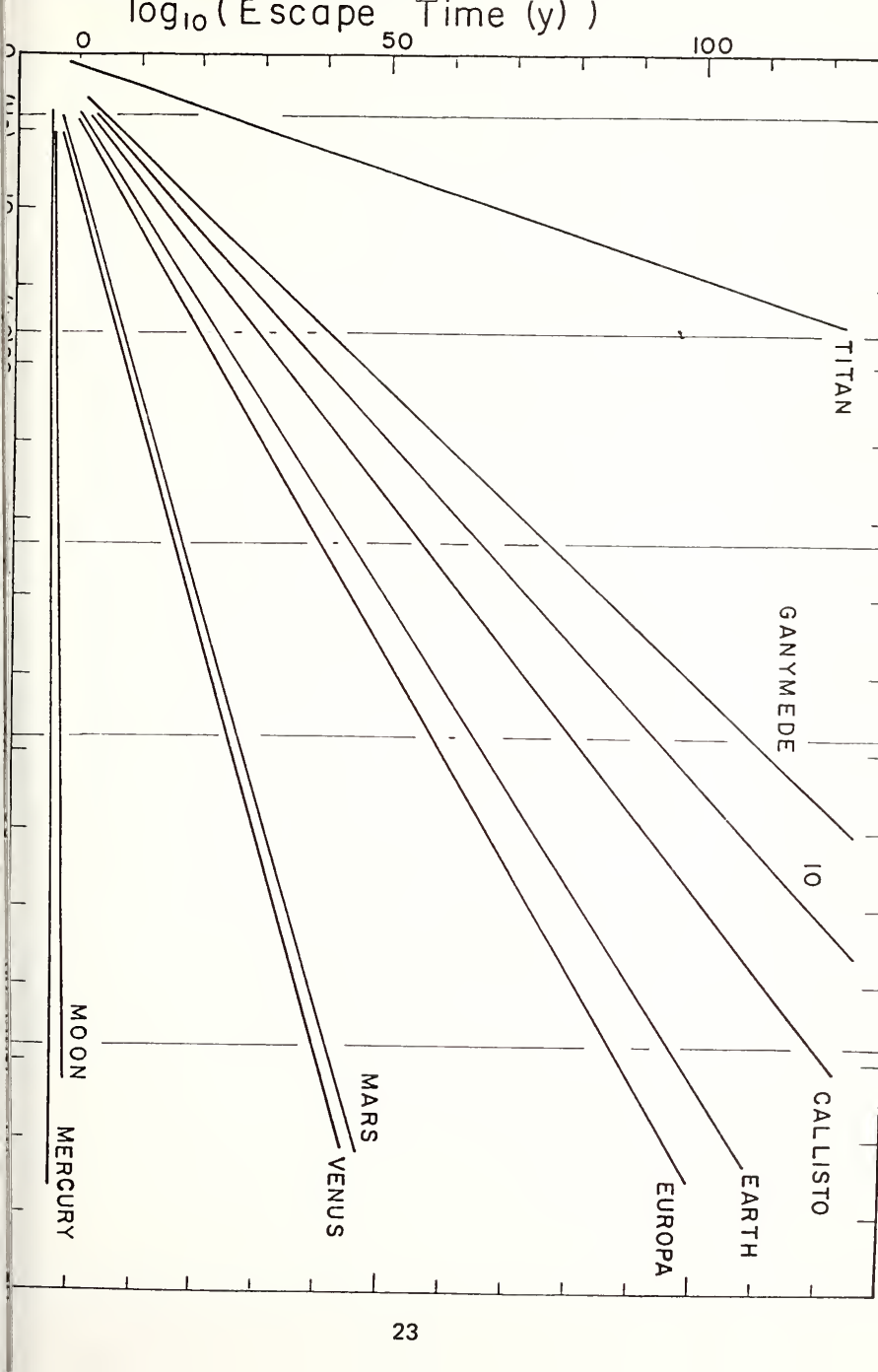
8 Papagiannis, M.D., *Space Physics and Space Astronomy.* Gordon and Breach, New York, 1972, p. 14.
Hunten, D.M. and Donahue, T.M., *Annual Review of Earth and Planetary Science 4,* 265-292 (1976).

FIGURE I

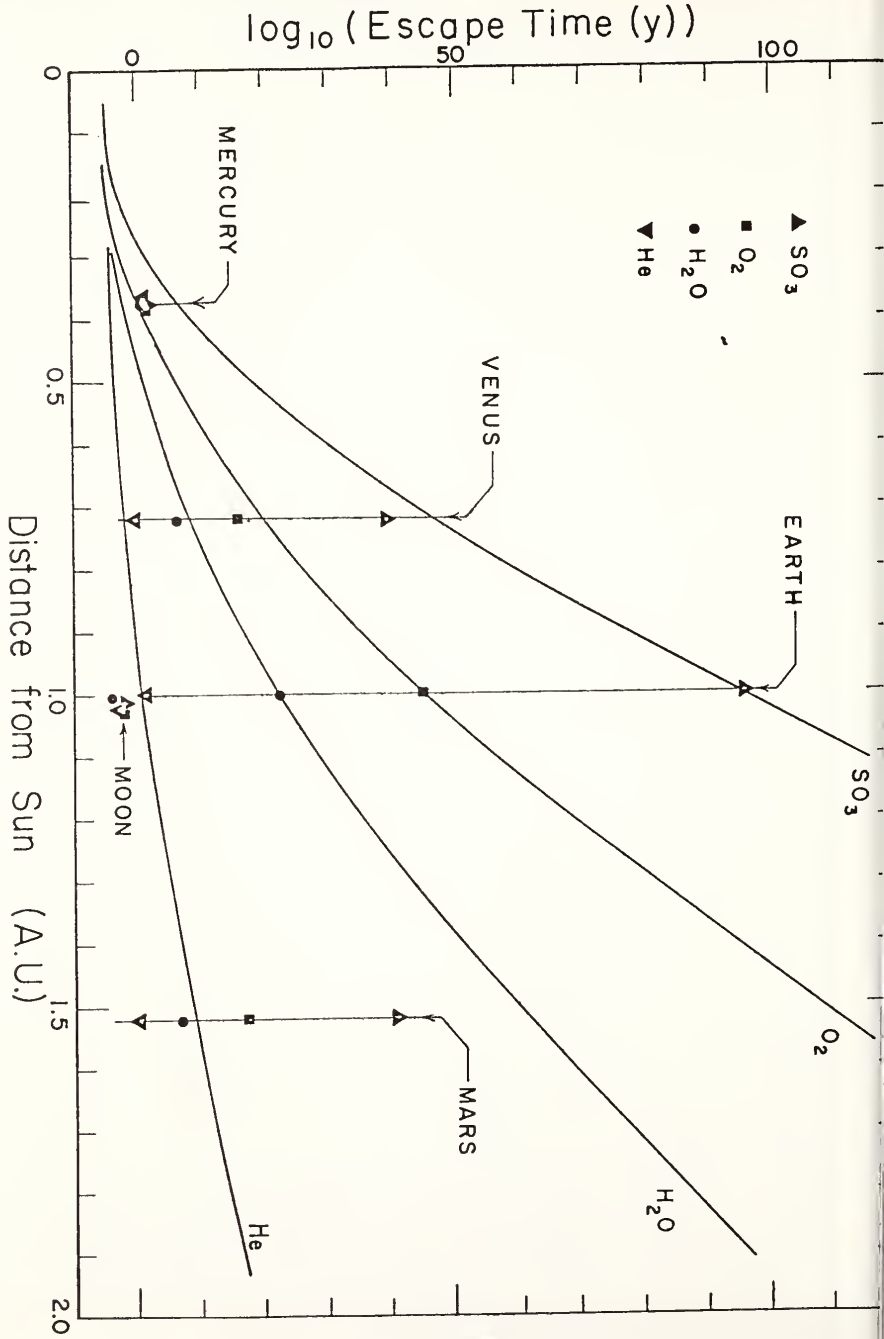
Escape time of gas molecules vs. the mass of the molecules, for various bodies in the solar system.

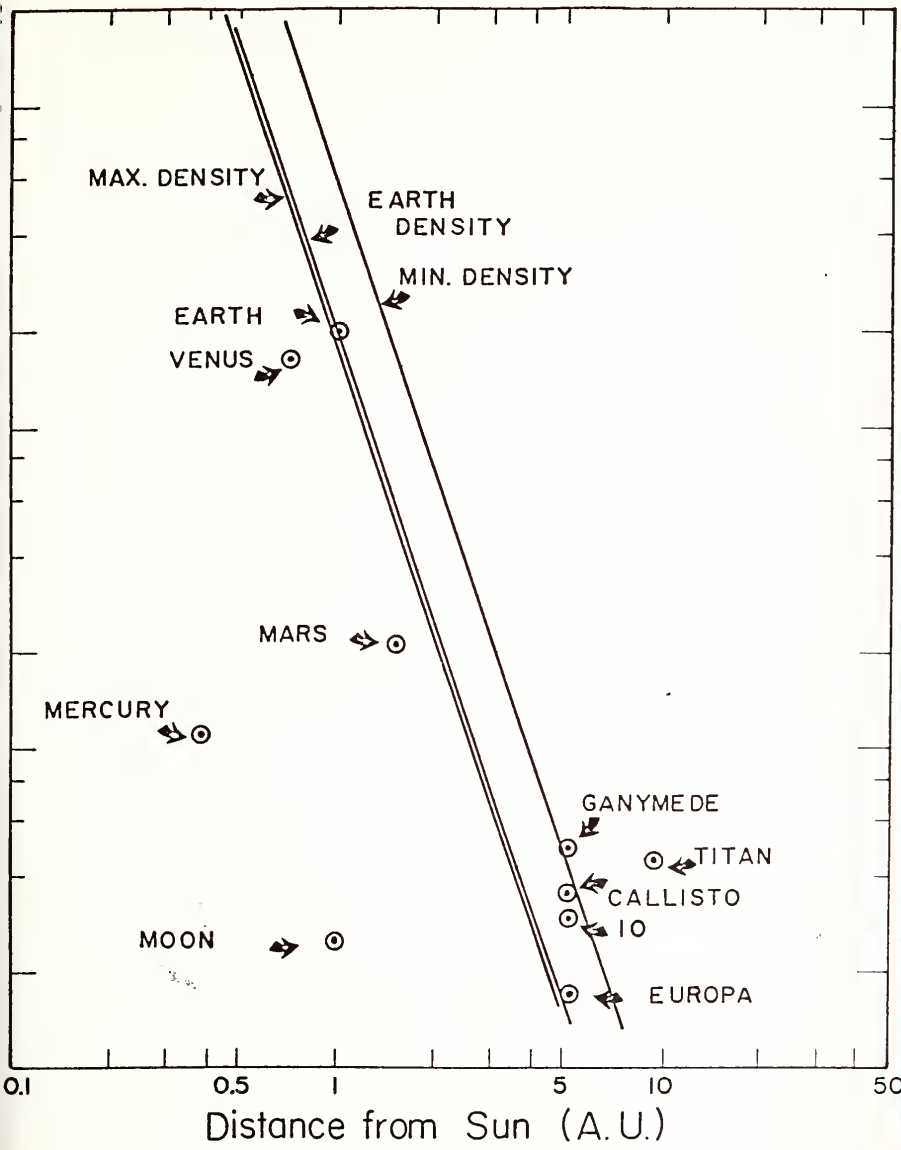
Body	distance from sun (A.U.)	Mass (times earth)	Escape time, t (years)				
			H_2 (2 amu)	He (4 amu)	H_2O (18 amu)	O_2 (32 amu)	SO_3 (64 amu)
Mercury	0.387	0.053	1.2×10^{-3}	4.9×10^{-4}	1.6×10^{-4}	2.1×10^{-4}	1.0×10^{-3}
Venus	0.723	0.815	3.2×10^{-3}	3.3×10^{-3}	6.3×10^{6}	4.8×10^{16}	4.8×10^{39}
Earth	1	1	5.9×10^{-3}	3.8	2.7×10^{22}	7.7×10^{44}	4.2×10^{96}
Moon	1	0.012	6.0×10^{-14}	3.0×10^{-4}	3.4×10^{-4}	1.5×10^{-3}	1.2×10^{-1}
Mars	1.523	0.107	4.0×10^{-4}	4.8×10^{-3}	2.4×10^{7}	5.0×10^{17}	4.8×10^{41}
Io	5.203	0.015	9.5×10^{-2}	1.3×10^{3}	1.9×10^{34}	1.2×10^{66}	1.3×10^{139}
Europa	"	0.008	4.5×10^{-3}	1.4	7.1×10^{19}	1.4×10^{40}	9.6×10^{86}
Ganymede	"	0.025	5.3×10^{-1}	3.8×10^{4}	6.0×10^{40}	3.8×10^{77}	1.2×10^{162}
Callisto	"	0.018	4.4×10^{-2}	1.6×10^{2}	1.8×10^{29}	8.4×10^{56}	3.6×10^{120}
Titan	9.41	0.023	6.3×10^{8}	2.1×10^{23}	$\geq10^{200}$	$\geq10^{200}$	$\geq10^{200}$

ape time of gas molecules for various bodies in the solar system (vertical lines) and for
arth" at different solar distances (curves).



Minimum mass to retain water ($t = 10^{22}$y) vs. solar distance. Solid lines: maximu
density = 7 g/cm^3, Earth density = 5.5 g/cm^3, and minimum density = 0.6 g/cm^3.
Also shown are various celestial objects.




MAX. DENSITY
EARTH
DENSITY
MIN. DENSITY
EARTH
VENUS
MARS
MERCURY
GANYMEDE
TITAN
CALLISTO
IO
MOON
EUROPA
0.1
0.5
1
5
10
50
Distance from Sun (A.U.)

THE CONCEPT AND TREND OF SOCIAL STRATIFICATION

by Lee-jan Jan*

I. DEFINITION

Stratification, one of the universal social phenomena, has been defined in various ways by many sociologists. A review of some of the definitions will help us gain an understanding of stratification. Stratification, as viewed by Parsons, is "the ranking of units in a social system in accordance with the standards of the common value system."[1] Bernard Barber thinks that stratification is the differentiated structure and dynamic system of human society, in which differentiated activities and roles are valued in different degrees. The existence of this phenomenon is based on two conditions: first, men try to achieve their goals in society and in the search find that each man is a means to other men's ends; they value each other as agents of their goals. Second, men, for integrative purposes, agree on a common value.[2] Smelser thinks that stratification refers simply to the differential distribution of sanctions in a set of social structures, and the units can be roles, organizations, individual persons and classes.[3] Tumin thinks that for practical purposes, stratification and inequality are synonymous, and stratification essentially refers to the arrange ment of social groups or society into a hierarchy of positions that are unequal with regard to power, property, social evaluation, or psychic satisfaction.[4] Tumin also pointed out five important attributes of stratification: they are social, ancient, ubiquitous, diverse in form, and consequential. For Sorokin, stratification means the differentiation of a given population into hierarchically superposed classes. Its basis and very essence consists of an unequal distribution of rights and privileges, duties, and responsibilities, social values and privations, and social power and influence among the members

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1 Lewis Coser and Bernard Rosenberg, eds., *Sociological Theory: A Book of Readings* (New York: Macillan Company, 1969), p. 427

2 Bernard Barber, *Social Stratification: A Comparative Analysis of Structure and Progress* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1957), pp.1-2.

3 Neil J. Smelser and Seymour Martin Lipset, *Social Structure and Mobility in Economic Development* (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company, 1968), pp. 6-7.

4 Melvin M. Tumin, *Social Stratification: The Forms and Functions of Inequality* (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967), p. 12.

of a society. St atification is a permanent characteristic of any organized social group, but its concrete forms are different and numerous.[5]

From reviewing the different definitions, we may summarize and say that stratification is an ancient, ubiquitous, consequential phenomenon. It is a hierarchical arrangement of different social positions in a social structure; the different positions are evaluated, and the sanctions are distributed according to a common value system in a particular society at a particular time.

By this we mean that although the phenomenon of social stratification is ancient and ubiquitous, the concrete forms of this hierarchical arrangement, the common value system, the criteria people use to evaluate the different positions, may vary from time to time and also from society to society. Today we can see that the trend of modernization is to bring all the different originally isolated societies together and form a world community. This trend may decrease the differences of the criteria which are used among different societies. And there is a possibility of forming a common value system ona common value system on a world scope.

We need to note here that although we agree with Tumin that inequality and stratification in their practical use may be synonymous, for analytic purposes the term inequality has a hint of moral judgment, and the term stratification is more value free. We would also look at stratification as consequential rather than, as Barber indicated, serving a function for people to achieve their goals, because we feel his statement is too functionally tinted, and is inappropriate for a definition.

II DEBATE

The definition of stratification gives us a rough outline of what it is, but leaves us many problems for further examination. To be examined in this section are its antiquity and ubiquity areas. What are its various forms; what are those criteria that have been used in stratifying people of a society; what are their implications and consequences?

Lenski traced society in its various forms from early primitive, such as a hunting and gathering society, to a simple horticultural society, through the advanced horticultural societies, agrarian society to industrial societies. He pointed out that the fact of inequality (stratification) is as old as the human species, and there was no known society which had ever had a completely egalitarian system. Since the phenomenon is that old, the thought and discussion concerning it must not be a new subject either. Therefore tracing back to its early emergence may shed some light for the present development.

The earliest record we can find are those Hebrew prophets around 800 B. C., such as Amos and Micah, who in their writings denounced the rich and and powerful. Hindu priests around 200 B.C. wrote to support the existing

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[5] Pitirim Sorokin, *Social and Cultural Mobility* (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1959), p. 11.

inequality in their society. According to Lenski, the different ideas concerning stratification can be grouped into two categories: one is those who support the status quo, viewing the existing distribution of rewards as just and inevitable, and the other is those who denounce and criticize the existing unequal distribution of rewards and think the system is unjust and unnecessary. The former, as represented by those Hindu priests, Lenski refers to as an example of the conservative thesis; and the latter, as represented by the Hebrew prophets, Lenski refers to as the radical antithesis.[6] Although there have been many variations, these two main currents flow from the very ancient age down to the present. Not until recently do we begin to see a tendency of these two currents to flow into each other and become one.

In the Greek era Aristotle stood on the conservative side and defended the basic institutions which undergirded the social stratification, and he claimed that some men are by nature free, and some others by nature slaves. Therefore slavery is both expedient and right. At the same time Phaleas and Plato, on the other side, attacked the existing social stratification. Phaleas advocated the redistribution of land on an egalitarian basis, and Plato proposed his idea for communal ownership of all forms of property in *The Republic*.[7] But clearly we can see that their main concern of equality was only material possessions. So the criterion they thought was unjust for stratification was only economic factors, precisely property. Philosophers in the Greek era did not consider people being stratified by power, honor or prestige as unjust, or they just did not see it, because they were so indocrinated by the institutions of that time. Another criticism of both the conservative thesis and the radical antithesis is the philosophers saw the stratification system in a society either as just or unjust, and defended or attacked it, but they did not go further to analyze it to see the causes, consequences or implications of it.

Early Christianity was not really concerned about inequality per se. However, the work of John of Salisbury, an English bishop of the twelfth century, made a great step forward in the conservative thesis. John developed, in great detail, the organismic analogy. He thought that society was like the human body, each part of which has its own function in maintaining the whole system. Although the parts are functionally differentiated, they are united by ties of mutual dependence.[8] The theory began to probe into the causes, consequences, and implications of stratification.

Machiavelli, at the time of the Renaissance, asked who is fit to rule. He proposed an open society notion because he considered that one of the consequences of a closed stratified society could be the loss of talent by not giv-

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[6] Gerhard E. Lenski, *Power and Privilege: A Theory of Social Stratification* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966), pp. 3-5.

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 6

[8] *Ibid.*, p. 8

ing people an opportunity. But he thought that inequality in a society should be considered legitimate and desirable, as long as there has been equality of opportunity to become unequal. This notion of equality of opportunity is commonly advocated today.[9]

Thomas Hobbes, on the other side, advocated a fundamental equality among all men. The thought that the equality must take the place of inequality in the new criteria of power and privilege. Hobbes introduced the new criteria in stratification and his thought has influenced the 17th and 18th century radical egalitarianism.[10]

Since the English revolution of 1648, radical egalitarianists have made tremendous advances as they directed their attention toward political equality, and achieved a degree of intellectual sophistication, maturity and respectability comparable to that achieved earlier by the conservative thesis. The most prominent ones were Locke and Rousseau as they popularized the theory that sovereignty ultimately resides in the people as a whole, not the king.[11]

In the 19th century Karl Marx declared that the history of all hitherto existing societies is the history of class struggle. Marx saw the classes developed on the basis of the different positions or roles which individuals fulfill in the productive scheme of society. Marx categorized them mainly as the owner of the means of production, the bourgeois, and the workers. For Marx, the conflict between the bourgeois and the workers was mainly over the economic factors.[12]

Weber, although he followed Marx and recognized the significance of the economic aspects of stratification, added to the economic dimension of stratification two other dimensions, power and prestige. Weber saw property, power and prestige as three separate but interacting bases on which hierarchies are created in a society.[13]

Before we turn to the contemporary theories, there are still two conservative theorists in this period whom we need to mention, William Graham Sumner and Gaetano Mosca. Sumner was a Social Darwinist. He described the class system of society as being essentially a measure of the social worth of men, which in turn was basically a measure of native ability. Although he admitted that some inequality in a stratification system may have resulted from chance or luck, he thought those occurences were not significant. Mosca's argument for the existing system is that human societies can never function without political organization and political organization necessarily

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9 Tumin, *Social Stratification,* p. 3

10 *Ibid.,* p. 3.

11 Lenski, *Power and Privilege,* P. 11.

12 Tumin, *Social Stratification,* pp. 4-7.

13 *Ibid.*

involves inequalities in power, so that there are ruler and ruled, and inequality is inevitable.[14]

In contemporary sociology, a big step was made by American sociologists as they launched the empirical study of stratification. An example can be seen in Robert Lynd's study of *Middletown.* Lynd analyzed a typical American community, in terms of the impact of economic power on the political, social, educational, and religious institutions of the community.[15]

W. Lloyd Warner's study of *Yankee City* is a series of studies of the social structure and function of a northeastern community. Warner's emphasis in the study of stratification is on reputation and prestige. He relied more on subjective criteria, to see how the members of a community view their situation, than on the objective differences between them, such as income. Warner also tried to develop a standard index of status characteristics based on such criteria as education, residence, income, and family background. [16]

C. Wright Mills in *The Power Elite* argued that power is the key concept in social relations and that effective power, at least in American society, derives from advantageous economic positions. Mills thought that the economic elite, military eleite, and power elites make a special privileged elite group who see themselves differently from the other social classes, and the power elites exert influences on policy making.[17]

In this era we think the main progress in the study of stratification includes, first, in methodology, the beginnings of empirical research; second, the broadening of stratification criteria. The theorists no longer rely on only one of the measures, such as the objective indices of income and education, or the subjective indices as imputed honor or prestige, but adopt both measures. Third, a beginning of notice of the issue of mobility was made and concern expressed about it be inquiry as to whether America is still a land of opportunity.

Except for the progress the sociologists made in methodology and practical issues, on the conceptual level we may say the study of stratification still follows the two main streams, the conservative thesis and the radical antithesis. Functional theory, which follows the conservative thesis, sees society as an organism; stratification as a functional necessity in maintaining the society; and stability and order as normal, conflict and disorder as deviant phenomena. It is represented by W. Lloyd Warner, Talcott Parsons, and Kingsley Davis. Conflict theory, which follows the radical antithesis, sees stratification as a major source of continuing conflict in a society, and conflict as inherent, natural and predicatable in social organization. It is represented by Robert Lynd, C. Wright Mills, Lewis Coser, and Rolf Dahrendorf.

Parsons thinks that there is a consensus on a set of common values in every

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14 Lenski, *Power and Privilege,* p. 13

15 Tumin, *Social Stratification,* p. 8.

16 *Ibid.*

17 *Ibid.,* p. 9.

society, although in different societies they may weigh the values differently. There is also a functional differentiation of roles. The system of stratification in a society is an expression of the value system of that society. The differential distribution of rewards depends upon the society's set of common values, which serves as a standard measurement, and the person's qualities, performance and possessions, or the functional importance of his position. Since men are different in qualities, performance, and possessions and the roles or different in importance, stratification is therefore natural and inequality is inevitable.[18]

Davis in *Some Principles of Stratification* states that stratification is a functional necessity of a society. For the benefit of the whole society, it is necessary to motivate the proper persons to the proper positions. Therefore for the more capable persons, to take the positions which have the greatest importance for the society and require the greatest training or talent, and to perform their duties, the rewards have to be different.[19]

The conflict theorists do not agree with the functional analysis of stratification. Lewis Coser argues that the social conflict by itself is a function in helping to establish unity or to reestablish unity and cohesion. Tumin criticises Davis as attempting to defend the status quo. David Lockwood criticises Parsons' equilibrium model by pointing out that first, the existence of a normative order mirrors the continual potentiality of conflict; second, there are varying degrees of acceptance of, or alienation from the dominant values; third, there is a division of interest resulting from differential access to scare resources; fourth, the stability and instability mean the success or failure of the normative order in regulating conflict of interest; fifth, to understand why behavior patterns persist or change, we need to understand not only the normative structuring of motive but also structuring in substratum.[20]

Ralph Dahrendorf's criticism says functional framework lost the problem-consciousness, which is not only a means to avoid ideological biases, but also an indispensable condition of progress in any discipline of human inquiry. He thinks that functional analysis is an utopian approach because: first, in functionalists' analysis of society the change is absent, and they take the society as in its final state. They did not recognize the unending flow of the historical process. Second, functionalists believe in the existence of universal consensus on prevailing values and institutional arrangements; everything has a function to preserve the society, and the structure is perfect for its function.

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18 Alvin Boskoff, *Theory in American Sociology: Major Sources and Applications* (New York: Thomas Crowell Company, 1969), p. 220 Lenski, *Power and Privilege,* p. 16.

19 Reinhard Bendix and Seymour Martin Lipset, eds., *Class, Status, and Power: Social Stratification in Comparative Perspective* (New York: The Free Press, 1966), pp. 47-48

20 D. Lockwood, "Some Remarks on the Social System," B*ritish Journal of Sociology,* 7:134-146, June, 1956.

They neglected the structurally generated conflict. Third, all the processes going on in utopian societies follow recurrent patterns and occur within and as part of the design of the whole. They affirm and sustain status quo. Even the moving equilibrium is still the organism type, while what is going on is only metabolism. There will be no change of the society as a whole. Fourth, the approach can be applied only to a self-sufficient, internally consistent society which is isolated from other communities.[21]

Dahrendorf presents a conflict approach to the analysis of society in which: first, the society is constantly changing. Second, social conflict is ubiquitous; it may be unpleasant and disturbing, but it is indispensable to our understanding or social problems. Third, societies are held together not by consensús but by constraints, not only by agreement but by coercion, and values are enforced. Constraints generate conflict, and conflict generates change.[22]

The main criticism conflict theorists give to functional theorists is that they did not take change and conflict into consideration. However, we know the harmony and the stability of social structure is one side of the fact, and the conflict and change of social structure is the other side of the fact; stability is necessary to the social structure; change is also necessary to the social structure. We may say both theories are correct, but both theories are imcomplete; as Dahrendorf pointed out, society is Janus-headed and the two faces have to be described by different theories. The two theories are actually complementary, not contradictory. The two theories each have their crucial function for the society. As we can see, the conflict theory is more idealistic; it is critical of the existing system and leads to change. The functional theory is more pragmatic, emphasizing the preservation of order and leading to stability. So we can assume that without the conflict theory, human society will tend toward anarchy or chaos.

The two theories of stratification have gone a long way, and both in the course of history have gained maturity. Their concepts have come from a simple notion of the phenomenon of inequality to the inquiry of its causes, consequences, and the development of systematic theories to explain the phenomenon. The criteria the theorists used to measure the inequality or analyze the stratification have been broadened from only objective indices, such property, to the use of both objective and subjective indices. They also improved in their methodology by using empirical research methods. Although we see that both theories have gained maturity, that does not mean that we think that they are perfect, nor do we think they explain the whole fact. As society changes, they still fall short in explaining the new phenomena. As John A. Jackson pointed out, they are inappropirate for the analysis of the competing interests of power elites in a situation where access to power is not necessarily dependent upon either the ownership of property or the value of

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21 Coser and Rosenberg, *Sociological Theory*, p. 222.

22 *Ibid.*

the performance of needed tasks for the society.[23] There are still other problems such as the measurement of mobility which need further development, as well as speculation on the indications of which direction we are going, increasing or decreasing equality.

The biggest weakness in both theories, as Lenski pointed out, is their tendency to make social analysis subservient to moral judgment, thus often leading to the formulation of hypotheses which do not lend themselves to empirical proof or disproof. Besides, we think this moral judgment concerning the question of justice should be considered irrevelent to a scientific analysis of the social fact.

III. SYNTHESIS

After we have examined both the strengths and weaknesses of these two theories, it is natural to search for an alternative which will combine the strength of both theories and eliminate their weaknesses. Actually, we can see a trend of synthesis is already emerging. Bernard Barber pointed out that functional theory, although it looks at stratification from a functional point of view, functional theory does not mean that it has to be conservative, defensive of the status quo, or against change. If just describes one aspect of stratification.[24]

Sorokin's work *Social Mobility* is considered by Lenski probably the first extensive and systematic treatment of social stratification in a synthetic manner, because Sorokin combined and blended elements of both traditions.[25]

Stanislaw Ossowski, in his treatment of class structure, sought to demonstrate that both theories are fundamentally correct, and human societies are far more complex than either theory can deal with fully.[26]

Pierre L. Van Den Berghe also spelled out that the time has named for the conflict theory to criticize the functional theory as not taking change into account, and that societies are never perfectly integrated, or not every element of a social system is functional or essential. Now is the time to move toward a synthesis.[27]

Lenski is the most enthusiastic sociologist in the development of a synthetic theory. He thought that the movement of synthesis has been more by drift than design and a design will help to speed the process. He pointed out

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23 J.A. Jackson, ed., *Social Stratification* (Cambridge: University Press, 1968), p. 3.

24 Bernard Barner, "Structural-Functional Analysis: Some Problems and Misunderstandings, "*American Sociological Review,* 21:129-135, April 1956.

25 Lenski, *Power and Privilege,* p. 18.

26 *Ibid.*, p. 19.

27 Pierre L. Vanden Berghe, "Dialectic and Functionalism: Toward a Synthesis," in Demerath and Peterson, *System, Change and Conflict* (New York: Free Press, 1967).

that in the process of synthesis, there are two ways to involve the reformulation of problems and concepts. The first is the technique of transforming categorical concepts into variable concepts. Categorical concepts limit one to think in what degree a given phenomenon is present. The second technique is to break down compound concepts into their constituent elements. Because many traditional concepts used to describe systems of stratification subsume a variety of loosely related variables, he believes that by using these two techniques there will be an increase in agreement in areas of controversy.[28]

Lenski postulated eight controversies between conflict and functional theories. They are the controversies over the nature of man, the nature of society, the degree to which systems of inequality are maintained by coercion, the degree to which inequality generates conflict, the means by which rights and privileges are acquired, the regarding of inequality as inevitable, the nature of the state and of law, and the regarding of the concept of class as essentially a heuristic device calling attention to aggregations of people with certain common characteristics. Lenski analyzed his theory according to the above eight controversial areas and claimed his theory is "an extremely complex mixture of elements from these two older traditions, yet at the same time unique and different."[29]

Lenski's theory mainly stems from his principles of the distribution of goods and services. The two principles are: first, in primitive or technologically lagging societies, there are no surplus goods or services; the distribution is according to need. Second, in more advanced societies there are surplus goods and services, the distribution of these surplus goods and services depends upon power. Privileges are the possession or control of the surplus goods and services. Thus classes emerge mainly because of surplus goods and services.

Although there are theorists who are very optimistic with regard to the direction of a synthesis, such as Lenski, there are doubts among other theorists. For example, Dahrendorf thinks that the society is Janus-headed; the two faces have to be described by two theories, and since the two theories are complementary, a synthesis is not necessary.[30] Erik Allardt wonders whether a synthesis is possible. He thinks it mainly depends upon what interpretations one has for a theory. He distinguishes theories into two categories. One is the propositional theory, and the other is the dimensionalistic theory. He thinks a synthesis is possible for the propositional theory, but not for the dimensionalistic theory. Lenski belongs to the former and Dahrendorf belongs to the latter.[31]

Regardless of the doubts about the necessity and possibility for a synthetic theory, we are glad to see, for the first time in the history of stratifi-

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28 Lenski, *Power and Privilege,* p. 20.

29 *Ibid.,* pp. 441-443.

30 Coser and Rosenberg, *Sociological Theory, p. 222.*

31 Jackson, *Social Stratification,* p. 15.

cation study, a new dimension is introduced. We believe the pursuit of the truth is not limited to one way or the other. The more directions from which we approach the truth, the faster we will get to the core. At the same time the more ways we look at a fact, the more comprehensive we gain about it, the less biased we will be.

IV. HYPOTHESIS

As we have reviewed the theories, the debate on whether stratification is just or unjust, is necessary or unneccessary, is functional or disfunctional, stabilized the society or prevented it from progressing, we feel the debate is too morally loaded. A synthesis theory has emerged and an attempt made to get away from this debate, by looking at the fact as it is, with an analytical approach (i.e. Lenski). We agree with this approach and want to supplement it with some hypotheses which we derived in the process of reviewing the debate.

We are curious about which direction we are going, whether we are moving toward a society with increasing or decreasing equality. As history shows, we are moving from a stratification system of caste, to estate, then to class. Class allows more vertical mobility, which means that we are moving toward a society with more equality. We can also prove that movement by pointing out that slavery no longer exists in our society. But another question is how far we have gone. As we know there are still societies with caste residuals in some nations, and there are still queens, kings, and nobility.

The ultimate question will be whether we will ever reach complete equality. The question can be answered only by separating subjective and objective criteria, following Lenski's second technique of breaking down the component concepts.

We think by objective criteria we are moving toward more equality; the opportunity for education, and for higher income, is increasingly available to the whole population. But by subjective criteria, such as power, prestige, and privilege, we are not getting any closer to equality, in fact, perhaps farther from it. As we can see in a leader of one of the bigger nations, the honor, privilege, and power he enjoys, and the number of people he influences, is far above the leaders in the history of any known society, while at the same time an ordinary person remains the same in this respect. We may look at the societies another way. The general living standard of the whole society has been brought up, even the lower class enjoys some luxuries which many years ago only the upper class could enjoy. But the social distance between classes remains or increases.

To get equality we may assume that there must be some conditions. First, every man must be self-sufficient; no one would need any one else, then no one person could have any authority over any other; no one would have to submit to any one else for any reason. Therefore there would be complete equality. This type of society could happen only before history, but we would not call it society. Second, for every man to be self-sufficient, the technology must be very simple, or none. Otherwise one just cannot be self-sufficient. If

the society is more technologically advanced, thus the less chance for a person to be self-sufficient, and the more highly it is differentiated, the more elaborate stratification it needs. That is the direction our society is going. We can try to view all the differentiation of objective criteria among different professions. But as long as we cannot completely coordinate horizontally between professions, we cannot break down the hierarchy; then the difference of subjective criteria among different people will still remain.

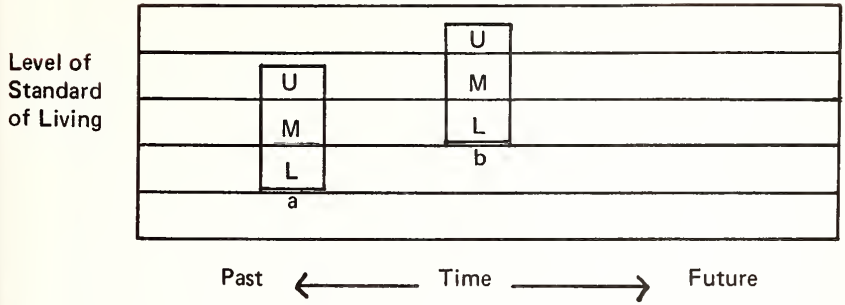
Modern societies, as we mentioned in our first section, through advanced techniques of transportation and communication, is in the trend of forming a great community of world scope. As we see in history, society changes, and the criteria for stratification also change. Different societies have different emphases on stratification, and as these societies unite to form larger societies, first will come the absorption, adaptation and integration of different value systems. A new value system will be generated, and new criteria will emerge. Even if we gain equality for what criteria we have today, when the new criteria evolve, there will still be more equality for us to pursue. If the world becomes one society with uniform common values, competition will become even stiffer, for everyone will be competing for the same goals. Once that goal is achieved, greater prestige and power will be associated with it, and this will widen the social distance, and create more inequality. The increasing discrepancy between subjective and objective criteria will increase the tension of status inconsistency.

In the following, we want to introduce two models to explain our hypothesis. As we indicated, inequality can be explained only by separating objective and subjective criteria. Here we want to adopt the concept from functional theory that structure does persist, and the concept from conflict theory that structure of society does change.

If we consider individual and stratum mobility, assume the effect is a positive upward movement, and use objective criteria, then we can say the society will move upward as a whole. If we use subjective criteria, however, the relative distinctions between the classes remain. They exhibit no change of class proportion. See Chart I for illustration. This observation applies only to short-term societal movement. By this we mean the structure or the shape of the society remains the same.

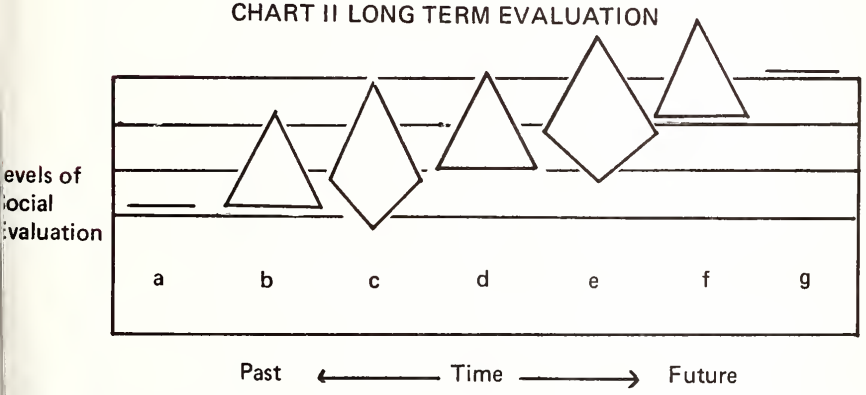
If we assume the human effort in seeking equality does have influence on the evolution of the society over a long period of time, we should see not only the simple upward movement as indicated in Chart I, but also a change in the structure and shape of the whole society, as indicated in Chart II. We suppose that "a" is pre-history, in which there was not much interaction between people, and everybody was nearly self-sufficient; there was no stratification, and people were living on the same level, and the society was two-dimensional Area. "b" symoblizes the period after interaction has taken place, and some people from organizations, and hierarchy results. The lower class is the largest, and the society has a pyramid shape. The process of reforming their society, and helping the people in the lower class, results in a diamond-shaped society, "c"; the middle class is the largest. Efforts to eliminate the lower

CHART I SHORT TERM DEVELOPMENT



Note: U=upper class; M=middle class; L=lower class

CHART II LONG TERM EVALUATION



Note: the pyramid and diamond shapes should be viewed as three dimentional. The line should be viewed as two dimentional.

class results in another pyramid shape, "d", but this lowest class is a level higher than "b"'s lowest class. We can see that the evolution takes place resulting in alternations between the pyramid and diamond shapes ("e",and "f"), with the lowest class of each new group still higher than the last time the society had that shape. "G"can happen only if all professions are made equal, with everyone on the horizontal level, with no vertical distinctions. But the direction of the development of society is toward more and more stratification, and unless we can break down this process,"g"remaines only an unachievable goal.

According to the hypothesis we proposed, someday we may get equality in objective criteria, but for subjective criteria, equality will serve as a stimulus for us to strive forward, but will remain an unattainable goal.

PAR—A—DISE AND SCIENCE

by Frank Sadler*

One of the more interesting and, perhaps, significant details of Kurt Vonnegut, Jr.'s "book of lies," Cat's Cradle, is its structural use of the principle of the "liar's paradox" — "Nothing in this book is true."[1] This principle has its source in logic and its solution in modern mathematics. John Somer in his article "Geodesic Vonnegut; Or, If Buckminster Fuller Wrote Novels" argues "Vonnegut's singular response to modern science required him to introduce revolutionary techniques into the spatial-form tradition" of the novel in order to defend himself from the "terrors that post-Einsteinian science has created."[2] No one would seriously question Vonnegut's fiction for a lack of revolutionary character or technique. However, Somer's discussion of Vonnegut's *Cat's Cradle* and *Slaughterhouse-Five* in terms of the structural principles of Buckminster Fuller's geodesic dome may be misleading and inappropriate. Instead, the significance of Vonnegut's *Cat's Cradle* may be better understood in light of a pair of dice and the "liar's paradox."

In *Cat's Cradle* the prefatory statement "Nothing in this book is true" is known in logic as the "liar's paradox" and was first formulated by the ancient Greeks, though no one seems to have been able to resolve this paradox until the end of the last century when a fundamental re-examination of the foundations of logic and mathematics began. Howard DeLong is an essay in the March 1971 issue of *Scientific American* on "Unsolved Problems In Arithmetic" points out "There are arithmetic problems that a child of ten can understand but that have nevertheless remained unsolved for tens, hundreds and even thousands of years."[3] Likewise, in literature there exists a set of problems we all seem to understand but for which no apparent solution has been found. Nevertheless, a solution to the "liar's paradox" does exist, and a solution to Vonnegut's literary paradox is possible.

In logic the "liar's paradox" belongs to the theory of types or to that area of mathematics known as set theory. Anatol Rapoport is an essay on "What Is Semantics" explains in *The Use and Misuse of Language* that if we draw a

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1 Kurt Vonnegut, Jr. *Cat's Cradle* (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1963).

2 John Somer, "Geodesic Vonnegut: Or, If Buckminster Fuller Wrote Novels," in *The Vonnegut Statement,* ed. Jerome Linkowitz and John Somer (New York: Del Publishing Co., Inc.) p. 237.

3 Howard DeLong, "Unsolved Problems in Arithmetic," in *Scientific American* (March, 1971), p. 50.

square and write within it "Every statement in this square is false," then, we have a paradox.[4] Rapoport continues, "Suppose the statement is true. Then, since it is the only statement in the square, it must be false. On the other hand, suppose it is false. Then, there must be true statements in the square. But again it is the only one; so it must be true" (p. 19). The same line of argument may be advanced for Vonnegut's *Cat's Cradle* since the statement "Nothing in this book is true," and others like it in the novel, is contained by the novel. Rapoport observes, in discussing the "liar's paradox," that "Since progress in mathematics depends on its complete internal consistency, it was necessary to re-examine the logical foundations of mathematics. One of the results of this re-examination is the theory of types. The theory rests on the principle that 'a class cannot be a member of itself.' That is, if you make a statement about all statements (and isn't that what Vonnegut has done?) of a certain class, the statement you have made cannot be considered to be in that class. This was the principle violated in the paradox just described" (p. 19). And this is the principle violated in *Cat's Cradle.*

It would be easy to discuss *Cat's Cradle* as a type of sophisticated "liar's paradox," if it only contained one statement like Rapoport's example. But, *Cat's Cradle* contains not one but thousands of sentences "within the square" which comprise a class or set we call the novel. Further, all fiction, from one point of view, presents a set of lies, that is, untruths which are imaginatively invented or fabricated for the purpose of presenting reality. H. Bruce Franklin in *Future Perfect: American Science Fiction of the Nineteenth Century* suggests that science fiction "seeks to describe present reality in terms of a credible hypothetical invention — past, present, or, most usually, future — extrapolated from that reality."[5] To this we may add that science fiction, because it attempts to "describe present reality in terms of a credible hypothetical invention. . .extrapolated from that reality," is a more demanding fiction than that of the mainstream novel. It is a more demanding fiction since it purports to abstract its principles from science itself and not the world of reality as the philosopher perceives it, the world of "light and color, of blue skies and green leaves, of sighing wind. . .the world in which finite man is incarcerated by his essential nature."[6] In identifying the "four theoretical modes" of fiction (the other three are "realistic fiction," "historical fiction," and "fantasy"), Franklin assumes that the purpose of fiction is to "describe present reality" (pp. 3-4). In *The Rhetoric of Fiction,* Wayne C. Booth writes "A dialectical history of modern criticism could be written in terms of the warfare between

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[4] Anatol Rapoport, "What is Semantics?" in *The Use and Misuse of Language,* ed. S. I. Hayakawa (Greenwich, Conn.: Fawcett Publications, Inc.,1962), p.19.

[5] H. Bruce Franklin, *Future Perfect: American Science Fiction of the Nineteenth Century* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1968), p. 3.

[6] Lincoln Barnett, *The Universe and Dr. Einstein* (New York: Bantam Books, 1973), p. 114.

those who think of fiction as something that must be above all real. . .and those who ask that it be pure – even if the search for artistic purity should lead to unreality and a "dehumanization of art."[7] Booth's formulation of the conflict between what is "real" and what is "pure," however, is dependent in the final analysis on how we perceive and understand our relation to nature. In the view of modern science, and the incorporation of that view into the structure of the modern novel, this problem between what is "real" and what is "pure" becomes entirely academic and, depending upon one's point of view, may disappear entirely. Science fiction and, specifically, *Cat's Cradle* do not lend themselves to a representational theory of art. The reason for this is simple enough. Science fiction makes the claim to treat a non-existent reality, an imaginative reality which may have its origins in our own reality but which because it extrapolates a future not yet existent cannot represent our reality but only its own. In other words, to borrow a phrase from Alain Robbe-Grillet, the novel "*constitutes* reality" and what "it explores is itself."[8] And, this is exactly what *Cat's Cradle* does since it attempts to describe present reality in terms of what is implicit in the "liar's paradox." Reality, as such, in modern science and the novel ceases to be a meaningful concept in such works as *Cat's Cradle* since the structure of the novel is no longer based on the world of the senses but rather resides in the principles of logic and mathematics. And the world of mathematics exists in terms of nothing more than a set of abstract principles, in a word, conventions. These principles or concepts are empty, that is, they contain nothing and are contained by nothing. The title to the novel itself, *Cat's Cradle,* suggests that this is the case since a "cat's cradle" is nothing more than a children's game in which two players alternatively stretch a looped string over their fingers in order to produce different designs. The emphasis is on design and not substance for there is no substance other than the delightful design formed by the game. Somer's comparison of the structure of *Cat's Cradle* and *Slaughterhouse-Five* to the structural principles of Fuller's geodesic dome unfortunately give rise to the twin concepts of "interiority" and containment," that is, the space a geodesic dome spans becomes confused with the principles which give rise to it. For polygons are *plane* figures which have several angles and sides. They contain nothing and their interlocking relationship is entirely dependent upon the function of their angles. In the particular case of *Cat's Cradle* the arrangement, for instance, of chapters, is not a result of space, though initially their order conveys that impression, but rather on the relationship of one principle or concept to another in an interlocking pattern (design) of reciprocal functions.

The solution, therefore, to Vonnegut's literary paradox resides in recognizing that the basic supposition of *Cat's Cradle* is radically different from those of

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[7] Wayne C. Booth, *The Rhetoric of Fiction* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1967), p. 38.

[8] Alain Robbe-Grillet, *For a New Novel: Essays on Fiction,* Trans. Richard Howard (New York: Grove Press, 1965), p. 161.

the traditional novel with its emphasis on the "human" rather than the "scientific" element in man. What is being suggested is that a fundamental shift has occurred in the art of the science-fiction novel and Vonnegut's *Cat's Cradle* is but one expression of that shift. Werner Heisenberg in "The Representation of Nature in Contemporary Physics" comments that "The problems of modern art, so frequently and passionately discussed in our time, force us to examine those foundations which form the presupposition for every development of art, foundations which at other times are taken as self-evident. Indeed, the question has been raised whether the relation of modern man toward nature differs so fundamentally from that of former times that this difference alone is responsible for a completely different point of departure for the fine arts in contemporary culture. Certainly, the relation of our period toward nature hardly finds its expression, as it did in earlier centuries, in a developed natural philosophy; rather, it is determined mainly by modern science and technology."[9] In *Cat's Cradle,* Vonnegut hints at the idea that the relation of our period toward nature has changed. About midway through the novel, our narrator John (or Johah), quotes a "Calypso" from *The Books of Bokonon* contained in young Phillip Castle's *San Lorenzo: The Land, the People* given him by the American Ambassador to the Republic of San Lorenzo, Horlick Minton. We learn that Bokonon

> . . .wanted all things
> To seem to make some sense,
> So we all could be happy, yes,
> Instead of tense.
> And I made up lies
> So that they all fit nice,
> And I made this sad world
> A par-a-dise. (p. 109)

What is significant about Bokonon's "Calypso" is the idea that Bokonon has remade "this sad world" in the image of a set of "lies" in order to create a new "par-a-dise." Bokonon's paradise, however, is not Milton's or God's since it introduces into itself the mathematical concepts of chance and probability through the image of a "pair-of-dice." Vonnegut's hyphenation of the work "par-a-dise" is significant. It is significant because it suggests clearly that Vonnegut's view of the world has been fundamentally altered by modern science and technology. As George Brecht in "Chance-Imagery" suggests "The conjuncture of statistical theory with mathematical physics, which occurred about 1860, resulted ultimately in a reformulation of our concept of the workings of nature; the requirements of strict causality, which classical philosophy had regarded as an *a priori* principle underlying the mechanics of

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9 Werner Heisenberg, "The Representation of Nature in Contemporary Physics," in *The Discontinuous Universe,* ed. Sallie Sears and Georgianna W. Lord (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1972), p. 122.

the universe, were replaced by a measure of probability."[10] The "predominance of cause thus gave way," as Brecht points out, "to the predominance of chance" and "chance became an underlying principle of our world view" (pp. 84,86). Vonnegut, like Bokonon, no longer believes in a "developed natural philosophy." In its place, Vonnegut, in a very real sense, is offering us a choice between two radically different ways of looking at things. We may embrace either a traditional "natural philosophy" with its accompanying picture of the universe as a stable and coherent, ordered world fashioned after God's image—the world of nature presented to us in our fiction by our senses, the world of metaphor—or, we may embrace the world of modern science and technology—a world of probabilities and chance, of uncertainty and increasingly abstract principle. Heisenberg's analysis of the realtion of modern man to nature is correct and it forces us to re-examine those foundations which "form the presupposition for every development of art" (p. 122).

One such presupposition has been the function of metaphor in art. For centuries the mark of the great literary artist has been, in some measure, his use of metaphor and we know that the function of metaphor in literature is to present us with a picture *of* nature. Yet as modern science has shown us nature is a far more complex thing than we had previously imagined. For with each advance of science has come a set of abstract principles taken from modern science which, after their own fashion, form models. These models in turn present us with a picture of our *relation* to nature instead of a picture *of* nature. And, of course, our realtion to nature in *Cat's Cradle* is created by the novel's principles which ultimatley have their source in modern science. Metaphor, like reality, ceases to be a meaningful concept in this type of literature. Yet those very principles which have replaced metaphor are empty of content. Lincoln Barnett in *The Universe and Dr. Einstein* comments that "In trying to distinguish appearance from reality and lay bare the fundamental structure of the universe, science has had to transcend the 'rabble of the senses.' But its highest edifices, Einstein has pointed out, have been 'purchased at the price of emptiness of content.' A theoretical concept is emptied of content to the very degree that it is divorced from sensory experience."[11] Vonnegut's "par-a-dise" is at best an uncertain world, if not an empty one. For at the end of *Cat's Cradle,* our narrator, John, finally catches up with Bokonon and Bokonon hands him a piece of paper on which is written:

> If I (Bokonon) were a younger man, I would write a history of human stupidity; and I would climb to the top of Mount McCabe and lie down on my back with my history for a pillow; and I would take from the ground

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10 George Brecht, "Chance-Imagery," in *The Discontinuous Universe,* ed. Sallie Sears and Georgianna W. Lord (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1972), p. 122.

11 Barnett.

some of the blue-white poison that makes statues of men;
and I would make a statue of myself, lying on my back,
grinning horribly, and thumbing my nose at You Know Who. (p. 231).

And that is exactly what *Cat's Cradle* has been, a history of human stupidity. However, it is an incomplete history since the novel ends with Bokonon's note. The world may be frozen, but our narrator, John, is not. After all, John has told us that "Nothing in this book is true." Though it is interesting to note that "the blue-white poison," ice-nine, is in actual fact a theoretical possibility, it has not yet been created in the laboratory. Nevertheless, Vonnegut's message, by implication, is clear. The world of science will lead to a "dehumanization" of our art. The choice is there. However, whatever we choose it will involve a chance, in a word, a "pair-of-dice."

ABSTRACTS
of
MASTER'S THESES
and
SPECIALIST IN EDUCATION PROJECTS

Bartlett, Montine C., (Specialist in Education, August, 1978)

A RESOURCE GUIDE FOR TEACHING LOCAL HISTORY IN ROME, GEORGIA

The purpose of this project was to provide a resource guide for social studies teachers in the Rome City School System. The guide is intended to be used in the teaching of local history.

Following a research of the literature dealing with the teaching of local history, an effort was made to identify historical sites, resource persons, and techniques in the collection and writing of local history.

Conclusions reached as a result of this study indicated: (1) social studies teachers should emphasize the use of local primary resources to teach local history, (2) the use of oral history should be encouraged, and (3) the Rome City School Systems should adopt this resource guide for use by interested teachers in the school system.

Baxter, Kay Greeson, (Specialist in Education, June, 1978)

A PROGRAM FOR GIFTED STUDENTS, GRADES K-8, IN A SMALL SCHOOL SYSTEM

The problem of this study was the designing of a program for gifted students, grades K-8, in a small school system. The study included the background, significance and limitations of the study. The program was limited in that it was designed for intellectually gifted only, does not include discussion of teacher education, selection or in-service.

The review of the literature includes the historical background of education of the gifted, definitions of giftedness and methods of identification, characteristics of gifted children, program goals, curricular interventions, administration of a program and program evaluation.

The study was a guide and procedures for setting up a gifted program based on current research. It included a plan for public involvement. The program was based on a definition of gifted which states, "The gifted are those children who, by reason of their intellectual superiority, are identified by professionally qualified persons and palced in specially designed educational programs." Identification procedures were spelled out in detail.

Administrative details described in the study included placement procedures, acceleration, individual program planning, progress reporting, a mentor system, a counseling program, record-keeping and withdrawal procedures. Organization details included scheduling, student/teacher ratio, the classroom

setting, equipping the center, and transportation. A cost estimate for setting up a 2-teacher/140-pupil center was given.

Four program assumptions and 27 goals are outlined.

A grade by grade curriculum was then described.The curriculum gave attention to both content and process. Teaching methodology was suggested.

Procedures for program evaluation were included. Appendices included various questionnaires and forms designed for the program.

Brewer, Frankie G., (Specialist in Education, August, 1978)

AN ASSESSMENT OF VOCATIONAL INTEREST OF A SELECT GROUP OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

An assessment of a group of selected high school students' vocational interest was carried out at the Governor's Honors Program, located at North Georgia College, Dahlonega, Georgia. Twenty-five students volunteered to participate in the interest surveys. They were asked to list all the occupations of which they were aware. They were then administered the Kuder General Interest Survey and the Kuder Preference Record Vocational Interest Form. There was no significant agreement between the Kuder Vocational Inventory, the Kuder General Interest Survey, and the students' list.

Buess, Lynn M., (Specialist in Education, December, 1978)

DIGITAL SYMBOLISM AS AN ADJUNCT TO THE COUNSELING SESSION

This is an in depth examination investigating an age old theory that teaches there is a relationship between a person's name, date of birth, and certain personality traits and behavior patterns. This investigative study has been designed to explore the possibility that there may be potential psychological merit to such theories. The methods of research employed will include experiental accumulation of date, a detailed case study, and empirical data. If any correlation exists between the system under scrutiny and traditional methods of attaining psychological date, the numerical method could be used as an adjust to the professional counselor as a time saver which allows the counselor to conduct therapy with more effectiveness and savings in cost to the client.

Byers, Stephen Walter, (MA, Psychology, August, 1978)

PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

The effectiveness of a consciousness raising program versus an integrated mind-body program at producing both mental and physical fitness was evaluated. In addition, an on-going physical education program was evaluated for effectiveness in both of these experimental dimensions. Experimental and control groups were randomly constituted from a pool of junior and senior level high school volunteers. A total of twelve classes (fifty-five minutes in

length each) was conducted with each experimental group. The subjects completed a self-esteem scale, an authority orientation scale, a self-disclosure scale, a cardiovascular efficiency test, a flexibility test, and the personal orientation inventory both before and after the experimental experience was presented. Results indicated that an integrated mind-body approach was marginally superior to either a strict mind or body approach employed separately in producing both mental and physical fitness, although no results were statistically significant.

Cochran, Charlotte, W., (Specialist in Education, August, 1978)

USING THE LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE APPROACH TO TEACHING READING AS A MEANS OF IMPROVING READING ACHIEVEMENT IN THE THIRD GRADE

This experimental research design was undertaken to determine if the teaching of the Language Experience Approach to Reading would increase the reading achievement of a specific group of third grade students.

For the purposes of the study, all third grade students at Tolbert School were tested and subjects were chosen for inclusion in the study on the basis of test scores on the Metropolitan Achievement Test, Primary II, Form G. Only those students whose scores on total reading were no greater than 3.0 and no less than 1.6 grade equivalent were considered for inclusion in this study. Subjects selected were twenty experimental group and twenty control group, third grade students matched on the basis of age, sex, I.Q., race, reading achievement test scores, and socioeconomic level. These subjects represented a low-medium range for third grade with extreme low and medium to high scores being eliminated from the study.

Groups received parallel instruction in all respects except that the experimental group received thirty minutes instruction three days each week using the Language Experience Approach in Reading.

A significance level of .05 was established as indicating a statistically significant event which could not be attributed to the probability of chance. Results for the total group showed no significant difference at the t value of .61 between the two groups in the area of word knowledge. There was no significant difference at the t value of .36 between the two groups in the area of Reading. There was no significant difference at the t value of 1.46 between the two groups in the area of Total Reading.

It was concluded that while there was no significant difference in the areas tested those subjects in the experimental group did make more gain than did those subjects in the control group. The Language Experience Approach is still a useful tool in the teaching of reading because of the motivation generated and because of the value as an effective reinforcer.

Crowder, Lynnda Bernard, (Specialist in Education, August, 1978)

AN EVALUATION OF THE PHILOSOPHICAL PRACTICES OF COBB COUNTY WHEN COMPARED TO MIDDLE SCHOOLS DISTINGUISHED BY A GRADE ASSEMBLAGE ONLY

Schools for middle-aged children must take into consideration the nature, characteristics and needs of the children for whom they provide. The old junior high school arrangement seems to have lost its enchantment, and the trend of the emerging middle school has finally arived.

This study presents a review of studies dealing with the change from the junior high school to the middle school program.

Philosophical and historical literature has been discussed in direct relation to middle schools in Cobb County, Georgia. An examination of the data gathered from this study indicates that the Cobb County middle schools, having "emerged", are practicing effectively their own philosophy and that philosophy characteristic of the national middle school concept.

Davis, Jane Thomas, (Specialist in Education, June, 1978)

THE PREDICTABILITY OF ACHIEVEMENT BASED ON RESULTS OF FIRST GRADE SCREENING TO DETERMINE DEVELOPMENTAL READINESS

The data provided in this study was collected over a three year period in the Bremen City Schools, Bremen, Georgia. Each spring all in-coming first graders were screened to determine their developmental readiness for formal learning. The results were tabulated and conferencing was done with parents of children who were identified as not ready for first grade. It was suggested to those parents that their children might benefit by another year of development before being placed in the public school setting.

A group of ten children who were advised to wait one year and did so was compared to a group of ten children who entered first grade in spite of the indications that they were not ready for school.

There seemed to be a significant difference in the success level of the two groups at the end of first grade.

Edwards, Melvin Reville, (Specialist in Education, August, 1978)

VALUE DEVELOPMENT AND CLARIFICATION THROUGH THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE OPEN CLASSROOM CONCEPT

The project was written as an attempt to find a solution to the problem of developing values in our public schools. After many years of experience as a teacher and an administrator in Catoosa County, it became very obvious that the students were unable to make value judgemnts and that something should

be done to guide these students in making their own decisions.

In order to gain insight into possible solutions to the problem, an extensive review and research of literature was undertaken. In addition to the periodicals and books which dealt with the development of value systems, tapes were available that presented guidelines that might be followed.

Literature which dealt with the subject of values was varied and included studies by many educators. One study by Allport, Vernon and Gardner was used because it is based on its ability to measure relative prominence in six basic areas of personality. These areas include: theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political and religious. Also, the studies presented and literature reviewed were summarized so that the reader might see what solutions might be available through the open classroom concept as opposed to the traditional classroom.

Chapter three dealt with the program development. This program development was done for the Catoosa County School System. This chapter discussed the need for the program along with the objectives. The steps for setting up the program were also included.

Many educators are still debating the pros and cons of open classroom and traditional classroom methods. In this study the educators presented the open classroom as an effective way to help students develop and clarify values.

Galloway, Ronald Dean, (Specialist in Education, August, 1978)

IMPLEMENTING AN INTRODUCTORY COURSE IN COMPUTER APPLICATIONS TO EDUCATION FOR ADMINISTRATORS AND SUPERVISORS AT WEST GEORGIA COLLEGE: A FEASIBILITY STUDY

In 1970, only thirteen percent of more than 23,000 secondary schools were using computers for educational purposes. DeRodeff reported that lack of high level administrative commitemnt was the reason for education's lagging behind in the use of electronic data processing. Even though innovations tend to complicate the life of the administrator, many schools have turned to the computer for relief from the increased demands for information handling and processing. One of the greatest aids that the computer gives to the administrator is the scheduling of classes. Perhaps one of the best known scheduling programs is the Generalized Academic Simulation Program developed by Robert Holz at Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Newness of automated data processing means re-education for many administrators. Hawkins and Ney pointed out that there is a discrepancy in the training of administrators between laboratory experience and the actual demands of the job. If Hansen and Kalssen's prediction is accurate, given the current growth rate, computers will be used by every school district in the country within the next decade. In this "real world" which James Cook referred to, the administrator will be concerned with implementing available techniques and devices for improving education.

School administrators must be provided with the skills necessary to direct the educational program in a technological setting. It is, therefore, the recommendation of this writer that West Georgia College, which serves many school systems in Northwest Georgia, offer to its graduate students in administration/supervision an introductory course in computer applications to education.

Handley, Mary Alice, (Specialist in Eduation, August, 1978)

STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE INTELLIGENCE BIORHYTHM AND SIXTH GRADE STUDENTS' VOCABULARY AND READING COMPREHENSION SCORES

Since the beginning of the education process, educators have constantly sought new concepts to aid in the understanding of the learning process.

One educator wondered why the intellectual capability of students seemed to vary from time to time. The educator discovered that an exact pattern could be established. He concluded that the students' high and low peaks of performances fluctuated in a definite 33-day cycle. This 33-day cycle is included in the group of cycles known as biorhythms. The word biorhythm is a compound of two Greek terms. One is bios for like and the other is rhythimor which means a regulated beat.

This study investigated the relationship of the intelligence biorhythm cycle and the scores on vacabulary and reading comprehension tests of 62 sixth grade students. The tests were administered at a 7-day interval to compare the different points in the intelligence biorhythm cycle.

The hypotheses were tested with t-tests for dependent means at the .05 level of significance. The scores on the tests administered on the peak days of the intelligence cycle were not significantly different from the scores administered on the zero days of the intelligence cycle.

Harris, Lucian, (Specialist in Education, June, 1978)

IMPROVING PUBLIC RELATIONS AT MARIETTA JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

It was thought important to develop a professional guide on public relations for the faculty and administrative staff at Marietta Junior High School. The problem was to examine the following relationships between the home and the school as they relate to the progress of the student:

1. The student as a reporter of his school.
2. Homework as a public relations tool.
3. Parent-teacher conferences.
4. Telephone contacts with the home.
5. The involvement of administrators in explaning the policies and practices of the school.

These relationships were examined through large and small group discussions with the faculty and administrative staff. From these discussions, a questionnaire was designed and distributed to the faculty and administrative staff. The results were compiled and analyzed. They provided the basis for the small group discussions and recommendations from the faculty and administrative staff as to ways of improving public relations at Marietta Junior High School.

Henry, Charlie, (Specialist in Education, December, 1978)

A STUDY OF THE EFFECT OF THE TRIADIC METHOD OF TEACHING UPON ACHIEVEMENT IN AND ATTITUDE TOWARD UNITED STATES HISTORY AMONG STUDENTS AT CALHOUN HIGH SCHOOL

This study attempted to determine if the use of the triadic method of teaching would result in a significant gain in achievement in or attitude toward United States history when compared to a traditional approach of teaching. The experimental group consisted of an intact class of thirty students. The control group consisted of an intact class of thirty students. Null hypotheses were used.

Both groups were given form A of the *Cooperative Social Studies: American History* as an achievement pretest and form A of *Remmers Any School Subjcet Survey* as an attitude pretest. Form Am of the *Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Gamma Test* was given to determine(1) if the two groups were of equal mental ability and (2) placement in the triad groups. For all three tests, the t-test for the difference between means were computed; and no significant differences were found in either mental ability, achievement, or attitude.

The experimental period lasted for one school quarter or twelve weeks. At the end of the treatment, form B of the *Cooperative Social Studies Tests: American History* and form B of the *Remmers Any School Subject Survey* were given as posttests. Mean gains in achievement and attitude, as demonstrated by scores on the pretests and the posttests, were calculated. The t-test for independent samples found no significant difference in achievement or attitude gains at the .05 level. Both hypotheses were accepted.

Hughes, Susan J., (Specialist in Education, August, 1978)

THE INFLUENCE OF PARENT INVOLVEMENT IN PRIMARY EDUCATION ON THE ATTITUDES OF PARENTS AND THE PERSONALITY OF CHILDREN

This study was designed to determine the effects of a planned parent-involvement program in the primary grades on the attitudes of parents and on the personality of children.

Students and their parents from the first, second, and third year classes at Chapman Elementary School in Cherokee County, Georgia were involved in the study. The control groups consisted of first, second, and third year students and their parents who were involved in a planned parent-involvement program. The treatment parent-involvement program covered an eight month period and involved scheduled meetings, scheduled conferences, working in the classroom, telephone communications, and note writing.

Five null hypotheses were tested to determine if significant differences existed in attitudes of parents and personality of students between the two groups. The teachers recorded parent participations, the parents were given pretests and posttests of attitudes, and the children were given the Early School Personality Questionnaire as a pretest and posttest. After analyzing the parent participations and statistically testing the pretest and posttest scores of parents and students using the t-test, the Pearson correlation coefficient, and the analysis of variance, it was found that the mean frequency of participations in the experimental groups was greater but that there were no bases for rejection of the hypotheses at the .05 level of confidence, except in one of the personality factors tested for children. The experimental groups scored significantly higher on the factor which measured guiltprone, apprehensive, and insecure personality traits.

Jackson, Clara Jernigan, Specialist in Education, August, 1978)

A CORRELATION OF READING ACHIEVEMENT AND I.Q. OF SIXTH GRADE STUDENTS AT SPALDING DRIVE SCHOOL IN ATLANTA, GEORGIA

The purpose of this study was to determine if there was any difference between the reading achievement and sex of the student, any relationship between reading achievement and I.Q., reading achievement and attitude. The study included only 74 of the 98 six grade students. Test scores were not available for students who were not enrolled in school all year, did not take the complete battery of tests or whose records had been sent to private schools.

The evaluative instruments were the Otis Lennon Mental Ability Test Form J and the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills. These are given in October of each year and recorded in the permanent records of each student. The scale used for measuring attitude towards reading was developed by Thomas H. Estes and published in Journal of Reading (October, 1971). ANOCOVA was used to test the first null hypothesis. The Pearson Product Moment Coefficient was employed to test the second and third null hypotheses.

The study found that there was a significant difference in reading achievement and sex of the student, a significant relationship between reading achievement and I.Q., reading achievement and attitude.

Jones, Louise T., (Specialist In Education, December, 1978)

A STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF THE EARLY CHILDHOOD GRADUATE EDUCATION PROGRAM AT WEST GEORGIA COLLEGE ON GRADUATES AFTER RE–ENTERING THE TEACHING PROFESSION

The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of the early childhood masters education program at West Georgia College on one hundred and twelve graduates after re-entering the teaching profession.

The hypothesis stated in Chapter I was supported by the results shown in Tables I, II, and III. There were positive evaluations reflected in the questionnaire results concerning the early childhood education program at West Georgia College on graduates after re-entering the teaching profession with validation by their supervisors. Not only the comparative raw scores (Table 1), and percentages (Table II) support the hypothesis, but so did the mean scores (Table II) and the correlation coefficients (Table III) on the matched pairs of teachers and supervisors.

Knox, Joyce Morgan, (Specialist in Education, August, 1978)

A 1978 STUDY OF THE IMPACT OF HOUSE 671 ON REGULAR CLASSROOM TEACHERS IN GEORGIA AS MEASURED BY THE KNOWLEDGE ACQUIRED

In 1975 the Georgia General Assembly passed an amendment to the 1974 Adequate Program for Education in Georgia – House Bill 671. The bill required all teachers, principals, and guidance counselors seeking certification or recertification after July 1, 1976, to complete a 50 clock hours course in the identification and education of students with special needs. The purpose of the requirement was to see that regular educators became more knowledgeable of the needs of the exceptional child.

Concurrent federal legislation, particularly Public Law 94-142, enacted in 1974, also endorsed the education of the regular classroom teacher about the needs of special education students.

To determine if the completion of the mandated requirement of House Bill 671 had made a significant difference in knowledge of those who had made a significant difference in knowledge of those who had completed the course, a fifty item questionnaire was devised. Distribution was made to 26 schools within seven school systems in the West Georgia Cooperative Services Agency District. Responses were received from 352 educators.

Utilizing a Northwestern University computer package, the West Georgia College computer service and the t test for probability, a significant difference at the 1% level was statistically proven when teachers who had completed the course were compared with teachers who had not completed the course.

In addition to the statistical data, profiles of age, years of teaching, origin

of course, year course was taken, payor of course, and knowledge item analyses were made.

Krieger, Alan Pheris, (Specialist in Education, June, 1978)

A COMPARISON OF READING ACHIEVEMENT RATES OF SLOW READERS IN SMALL AND LARGE CLASS INSTRUCTION AT CENTRAL PRIMARY SCHOOL IN 1977-1978

This investigation was designed to determine the effect of class size on the rate of reading achievement of below average readers in the third and fourth grades. Two different studies were implemented for this purpose.

The first study involved a comparison of reading achievement over a five month period. All of the third and fourth grade students at the test school with below grade level basel reading levels were used. Each grade had two five student experimental classes. The third grade control class consisted of 21 students. The fourth grade had a control class of 23 students.

The second study was conducted to determine the effect of class size on fifteen minute instructional period. Forty-two fourth grade students were used in this study. They were randomly divided into two experimental classes of five students and one control class of 32 students.

There were three hypotheses used to determine the significance of this study. The hypotheses are as follows:

FIRST HYPOTHESIS

At the end of this study, the third grade small experimental classes will not show a significantly greater rate of achievement in reading than the third grade large control class over a five month instructional period.

SECOND HYPOTHESIS

At the end of this study, the fourth grade small experimental classes will not show a significantly greater rate of achievement in reading than the fourth grade large control class over a five month instructional period.

THIRD HYPOTHESIS

At the end of this study, the fourth grade small experimental groups will not show a significantly greater proficiency in a specific reading skill than the fourth grade large control group after one fifteen minute instructional period.

A pretest – treatment – post test control group design was used for all of the experiments. Because of differences in reading ability, an analysis of covariance was used to treat the data with pretest scores as the covariate. The results of the first hypothesis approached significance, but was not significant at the .05 level of significance. The second and third hypotheses did not approach significance. Therefore, class size was not shown to be a significant factor in the rate of reading achievement of below average readers in the third and fourth grades.

Lane, Ronald Erskine, (Specialist in Education, August, 1978)

A STUDY OF COMPARATIVE STUDENT EVALUATIONS OF THE ELEMENTARY EDUCATION PROGRAM FOR THE SPECIALISTS DEGREE AT WEST GEORGIA COLLEGE JUNE, 1972 – JUNE, 1978

The purpose of this study was to tabulate, compare and assess student evaluations of the elementary education graduate program for those students completing both the masters and the specialists degree at West Georgia College from the inception of the specialists degree in 1971 until June, 1978.

The data to be presented were a tabulation of the questionnaire and evaluation form from approximately fifty students taken during the spring of 1978.

The results showed that the responding students have a positive attitude toward both degree programs and also have definite opinions regarding the differentiation of courses for each program.

Lippert, Pamela Ann, (MA, English, August, 1978)

FROM LEGAND TO ART: THE CHRISTIANIZING OF *SIR GAWAIN AND THE GREEN KNIGHT*

Three elements in the Middle English poem *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight* – the Beheading Game, the Temptation episode, and the character of the Green Knight – Bercilak – have been more discussed by source scholars than any other elements. The source scholars have traced these elements from folklore to their inclusion in the sources and analogues of *Gawain.* However, few source scholars seem interested in using their studies as a tool for understanding the Gawain poet's artistry; they seem more interested in the archetypes repeated throughout folklore than in the poem itself.

Even those scholars who have discussed the theme and structure of the poem have failed to show what the *Gawain* poet's unique contribution to the legend is. Most archetypal critics see *Gawain* as a seasonal folk-myth, depicting the battle between summer and winter. Other critics see the poem as a myth of Gawain's *rites de passage* from spiritual ignorance to self-knowledge, Even thematic critics have failed to demonstrate that the *Gawain* poet departed from his sources in theme or structure of plot.

Actually, the *Gawain* poet has selected elements of plot and character from pagan sources and blended them into a Christian poem of such unity that no element can any longer be isolated from the rest of the poem. The poet has achieved this unity by his construction of a Christian plot, his recreation of Gawain and the Green Knight as Christian characters, and his Christian style of narration. What emerges from the old legends is thus a completely Christian poem of great brilliance and clarity. The very Christ-

ianity of *Gawain* is the poet's contribution to the legend, and it shows his artistry in remaking the old stories into something new.

Lunsford, Linda Ganelle, (Specialist in Education, August, 1978)

THE EFFECT OF A FREE READING PROGRAM ON ATTITUDES TOWARD READING

The main purpose of this study was to determine whether students involved in a free reading program develop more positive attitudes toward reading than those students who have no designated classroom opportunity for free reading. Attitude changes were also analyzed on the basis of the sex of the student as well as the interaction effect between the free reading program and the sex of the subject.

The subjects for the study were 93 students enrolled in four tenth-grade Basic Composition classes taught by the researcher. Periods one and three constituted the control groups; periods two and five made up the experimental groups.

An attitude-scale pretest was administered to all four classes during the first week in October. The experimental classes then began using one day per week during which they were free to read any material of their own choosing. Occasional suggestions were made by the teacher, but, in general, the choice of material was left entirely to the student. The same attitude scale was given as a posttest during the first week in May.

An analysis of variance computed for the data indicated that changes in attitude were not significantly affected by the free reading program.

Miller, Debroah Ann, (Specialist in Education, August, 1978)

AN EVALUATION OF THE 1974 PHI DELATA KAPPA STUDY OF PUBLIC ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION IN THE WEST GEORGIA AREA

The purpose of this survey was to compile and compare the attitudes of Carroll County residents in the survey conducted by the West Georgia Phi Delta Kappa Educational Fraternity in Carroll County.

A total of one hundred and seventy-eight questionnaire results were tabulated. The purpose of this study was to compile and evaluate the responses of a selected group of people and their opinions of their public schools in Carroll County. Selected findings were compared with the National responses and opinions for that particular study.

Miller, Ellen, (Specialist in Education, August, 1978)

A STUDY IN THE EFFECTIVENESS OF READING TUTORIAL PROGRAMS AS COMPARED TO A TRADITIONAL APPROACH TO READING INSTRUCTION

This study was directed toward evaluating reading achievement and to determine the effectiveness of the Ginn Tutorial Program and the Scott Foresman Tutorial Program as compared with the traditional approach to reading instruction. The thirty students involved in the study were from Belwood School, Gordon County System, Calhoun, Georgia.

Experimental group 1 was tutored in the Scott Foresman Tutorial Program. Experimental group 2 was tutored in the Ginn Tutorial Program. The control group received no supplemental tutoring.

Pre and posttest scores were acquired through the administration of the Metropolitan Reading Test and the Slosson Oral Reading Test.

A statistical comparison of the mean scores of the experimental and control groups in reading achievement was made. The results of the statistical analysis indicated that the students in the experimental groups did not show a statistically significant gain in reading achievement on the Metropolitan Reading Test or on the Slosson Oral Reading Test.

Mitchell, George Clark, (MS, Biology, August, 1978)

HOME RANGE, MOVEMENT, AND HABITAT UTILIZATION OF LARGEMOUTH BASS, *Micropterus salmoides,* IN LAKE CARROLL, CARROLL COUNTY, GEORGIA AS DETERMINED BY ULTRASONIC TELEMETRY

Fifteen largemouth bass, *Micropterus salmoides* (Lacèpéde), were tracked in Lake Carroll, Carroll County, Georiga, using ultrasonic telemetry techniques. Recorded data was used to determine home range, day and night movement, and habitat utilization. Lake Carroll largemouth bass seem to be of two behaviorally different types, those that utilize small, well defined home ranges, and those that utilize large portions of the lake. Of the 15 bass tracked, eight occupied small, well defined home ranges, six utilized large portions of the lake, and no conclusion could be made on one. For all seasons (spring, summer, fall) the majority of fish moved more during the day than at night. When day and night movement for all fish were compared, there was significantly more day movement. Habitat utilization was determined by comparing the measured physical parameters (water temperature, light penetration, degree of cloud cover, barometric pressure, and dissolved oxygen) with three aspects of fish location (distance from shore, depth of water and dock utilization). A statistically significant relationship was found between light penetration and water depth selected. Fish were located in deeper water when Secchi disc measurements were high and shallower water when Secchi disc measurements were low. Surface water temperature showed an apparent, but

not statistically significant relationship with fish location. The bass seemed to show a preference for water depths of less than 1.5 m when surface temperature was less than 23 C and depths greater than 1.5 m when surface water temperature was greater than 23 C. No other relationships were found between fish location and physical parameters.

Neighbors, Linda, (Specialist in Education, August, 1978)

A COMPARISON STUDY OF A MAP AND GLOBE SKILLS PROGRAM TAUGHT TO FIFTH YEAR STUDENTS COMPARED TO A GROUP THAT RECEIVED NO SPECIFIC INSTRUCTION

This study was designed to determine if the instruction of map and globe skills would be beneficial to fifth year students. Seventy-five fifth year students from Richard B. Russell Elementary School were divided into three heterogeneous groups of twenty-five. Experimental group A was taught specific map and globe skills using an individualized approach, experimental group B was taught the same specific map and globe skills as a whole group, and comparison group C was taught map and globe skills only in the context of their normal social studies program.

Pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest scores were gathered from all three groups, and a statistical analysis using the Analysis of Covariance and Duncan's Multiple Range Test was made. The level of significance was established as .05. Using this criteria, null hypotheses two, three, five, and six were rejected, and null hypotheses one and four were not rejected. This study indicated the need for map and globe skills instruction in the elementary school social studies program.

O'Keefe, Audrey Carol, (Specialist in Education, August, 1978)

AN AWARENESS, ATTITUDES AND METHODOLOGY STUDY IN SEX EDUCATION FOR SEVENTH GRADE STUDENTS AT LAUREL HILLS ELEMENTARY SCHOOL IN COLLEGE PARK, GEORGIA

This study was undertaken, because of a concerned need or a greater awareness, a favorable attitude and improved understanding in sex education for the seventh grade students at Laurel Hills Elementary School in this day in time.

The study involved approximately ninety-two students, both male and female, Caucasian, Negroid and Monogoloid. The student's ages ranged from eleven to fourteen and the majority of their IQ's were average.

The study involved preparation, gathering of information, creating a comfortable atmosphere, presentation of the education unit and evaluation of its values to students of age.

The constituents used to serve as guidelines and materials:

Parent involvement and cooperation. A continuous unit which was preceeded by a science unit on the human body systems functions.

The use of booklets, teacher's outline, state published information, films, diagrams, newspaper articles, magazines, commercial T.V.

The study concluded that there was a need for sex education at this grade level with a positive acceptance by both parents and parents of this community.

These findings lead to the recommendation that a sex education unit become a supplement to the seventh grade science curriculum at Laurel Hills.

O'Malley, Judy Narmore, (Specialist in Education, August, 1978)

A COMPARISON OF THE READING ACHIEVEMENT BETWEEN HIGH RISK FIRST GRADE STUDENTS IN A DEVELOPMENTAL CLASSROOM AND HIGH RISK FIRST GRADE STUDENTS IN CONVENTIONAL CLASSROOMS IN CARROLL COUNTY, GEORGIA

The purpose of this study was to follow the progress of nineteen high risk first grade children who had been placed in an experimental first grade program during the 1977-78 school year. The study followed the non-randomized control group pretest and post test design. Students involved in the study were part of a special prearranged placement at the beginning of the year. The researcher looked at two different class placements of high risk first grade children to compare their reading achievement as measured by the Clymer Barrett and Cognitive Abilities Tests. To determine if one group performed significantly higher than the other, tests were run on the means of the control and experimental groups using the pretest and post test data. Analysis of this data indicated that the experimental group showed a significant gain in the mean over the control group. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference between reading achievement of high risk first grade children in a special developmental classroom and high risk children in conventional first grade classrooms was rejected at the .05 level of confidence.

Palmer, Gabriel Franciso, (MA, Psychology, August, 1978)

MEMORY: A PHENOMENOLOGICAL STUDY

In recent years a number of very provocative works have appeared challenging the basic assumptions of psychology as a natural science. The issue these critiques present is the inappropriateness of natural scientific methods to the study of psychological phenomena. The intention of this report is to show this "inappropriateness" and to discover a way for psychology to treat experience in a human and liberating way.

The psychology here developed begins by considering human experience as the point of departure for psychological understanding and elaborates the idea of a human science by developing a method based on speech and immediate experience. Then, the experience of memory is approached through this method, the results presented and a further study suggested.

Ponsell, Juanda, (Specialist in Education, August, 1978)

A COMPARISON OF EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED BEHAVIORALLY DISORDERED CHILDREN'S PROGRESS RELATIVE TO THE DEPTH OF PARENT INVOLVEMENT

This study examined the significance of parent involvement as it effects the progress of emotionally disturbed children. Subjects were sixty identified children whose files were available at the Burwell Psychoeducational Center, Carrollton, Georgia. A Rating Objective Form was used to determine progress for each child, and parent involvement was determined by a minimum of three contacts monthly with staff members. The data was analyzed using the Chi-square test for two independent samples and the results did not prove significant at the .05 level.

Price, Clay Louis, III, (MA, Psychology, March, 1978)

A SURVEY OF SOUTHERN BAPTIST ATTITUDES TOWARD THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN CHURCH AND SOCIETY

As effects of the Women's Liberation Movement spread to religious denominations, Southern Baptist churches have faced questions about women in the ministry. This paper examined Southern Baptist attitudes on acceptance of women in the pastorate, ordination of women to the ministry, the role of women in church-related work, and the role of women in business and politics. It was hypothesized attitudes would not differ significantly with respect to leadership status, age and sex, education, region of the country or support for women's rights.

A sample of 668 Southern Baptist pastors, Sunday School teachers, Woman's Missionary Union directors, and lay members were mailed a twenty-four item questionnaire designed to record dichotomous responses. The results of the 389 respondents were analyzed using chi square to determine significant relationships.

Overall, the respondents were supportive of women's roles in business, politics, and non-pastoral ministries. Less than 20 per cent of the total respondents were supportive of women in pastoral roles. Pastors were significantly less open to women in non-pastoral roles (religious education, youth work, and social ministries) than church members. Significant differences between the responses of persons with less than a high school education and persons with more than a high school education were observed on eighteen of the

twenty-four items. Persons with more education tended to be more supportive of women's roles outside the home.

Region of the country was associated with items on women's understanding of and vocal participation in politics and with an item that attitude change will occur in the future. Support for women's rights was associated with support for women in the ministry.

Two-thirds of the respondents expected attitudes toward women in the ministry to change within the next twenty-five years. If women continue to enter the ministry and if current trends in education, labor force participation and family patterns continue, it is likely that attitudes will indeed change to a more open acceptance of women in expanding roles.

Roquemore, Aaron W. (Specialist in Education, June, 1978)

A CONTRAST BETWEEN OFFENDERS AND NON-OFFENDERS IN THEIR FAMILY PERCEPTIONS

This research compared the family environment perceptions between individuals who are incarcerated in a penal institution and those individuals who comprised the normative sample of the Family Environment Scale. One experimenter, a Counselor at the Georgia Diagnostic and Classification Center, Jackson, Georgia tested eighty-three criminal offenders utilizing the Family Environment Scale, during a two week period. After that time, the program was discontinued.

The mean, standard deviation, and t-test for each of the two groups was computed. Analyzed difference between existing normative data developed by Rudolf H. Moos and that data developed by this investigator produced significant results at or beyond .05 level.

Scott, Charles Wesley, (Specialist in Education, June, 1978)

THE IOWA TEST OF BASIC SKILLS AS A NORM-REFERENCED MEASURE IN PREDICTING READING ACHIEVEMENT ON THE GEORGIA CRITERION-REFERENCED TEST

The problem was to determine whether there was a positive correlation between the Iowa Test of Basic Skills in language arts, including vocabulary, word analysis, reading and spelling, at the third grade level and the Georgia Criterion-Referenced Test in reading at the fourth grade level.

Information was gathered to determine whether the Iowa Test of Basic Skills, level 7, form 6, used with third grade students at Compton Elementary School in Powder Springs, Georgia was a predictor of the Georgia CRT reading scores obtained by testing the same pupils as fourth grade students in the Spring of the following year.

Positive correlations at the .001 level of significance were shown by using the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation. Correlations of .61, .52, .54 and

.74 were shown respectively between the vocabulary, word analysis, reading and spelling subtests of the ITBS and the Georgia CRT in reading.

The ITBS in language arts at the third grade level can be considered as a significant predictor of achievement on the fourth grade Georgia CRT in reading.

Overall the data would not suggest that the Georgia CRT be used to supplant the ITBS. However, as the different purposes of the two tests are considered, perhaps recognition of the significant correlations between the ITBS subtests and the Georgia CRT could help teachers approach the Georgia CRT with some confidence as they plan instructional strategies and interpret the test results to parents.

Seymour, Donald W., (Specialist in Education, August, 1978)

AN APPRAISAL OF THE READING PROGRAM AT UNITY SCHOOL OF THE LAGRANGE CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM

The purpose of this study was to compare two different approaches to the teaching of reading. RID (Reading Is Developmental), an approach developed and adopted by the LaGrange School System, was compared to the previous approach, LEIR (Language Experience In Reading) plus a basal reader, in an attempt to determine if there had been a significant improvement in reading achievement test scores under the new program. Third grade students of Unity School were used in this study. One group (1974-1975 group) had been taught under the previous program. The other group (1977-1978) had been taught under the RID program for approximately three years. The t-test indicated that the RID program had enhanced the reading scores.

Swantic, Frances McCormick, (Specialist in Education, August, 1978)

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE TEACHERS' RETIREMENT SYSTEM AND THE EMPLOYEES' RETIREMENT SYSTEM OF GEORGIA

This study was concerned with the comparison, of benefits and provisions, of the Teachers' Retirement System with the Employees' Retirement System in the State of Georgia. To accomplish this, relevant literature and laws were reviewed and provisions were compared. The comparison consisted of the following areas: (a) membership eligibility, (b) administration, (c) creditable service, (d) employee and employer contributions, (e) retirement benefit formulas, (f) benefits and options, (g) vesting, (h) inflation protection, (i) dis-

ability benefits, (j) early retirement benefits, and (k) death benefits. The study concluded that disparities and inequities existed between the systems. Proposals were listed to correct imbalances found.

Waits, Thurman Donald, (Specialist in Education, August, 1978)

A COMPARISON OF PUPIL ACHIEVEMENT FROM ONE-PARENT AND TWO-PARENT FAMILIES

This study was conducted during June, 1978, at Garden Lakes Elementary School in Floyd County, Georgia. The intent of the study was to gain a greater insight regarding the number of students from single-parent families and the resultant effects of the divorce, separation, or death as measured by the students' achievement. Stated as the null hypothesis, there is no significant difference in pupil achievement from one-parent and two-parent families. A better understanding of the magnitude and the nature of the single-parent families was desired by the administration and staff in order to provide more effective guidance and counseling. This information was important in regard to considerations for future planning.

Grades 3, 5, and 7 were used in the study. In each class the Experimental Group was identified by reviewing comulative records and using subjects from families with one parent because of divorce, separation, or death. For this population all subjects lived with their mothers. A Control Group was then matched with the Experimental Group using subjects from homes with both natural parents. For the purpose of this study, subjects with step-parents were omitted. If information from the permanent records was incomplete subjects were omitted. Using the matched pairs, in grades three, five, and seven, the N (Number) was 14, 12, and 20, respectively.

Subjects were matched using grade level, sex, age (within six months), and I.Q. (within five points). All students within the school are white, excluding race as a variable. Because of the size of the homes and the incomes, the neighborhood is identified as a middle-income community. As part of the countywide testing program all students took the Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills and the Short Form of the Academic Aptitude appropriate for their grade level in May, 1978.

Using the matched pairs, the null hypothesis was employed in testing the significance using the 't' test at the .01 level of significance. The results of the study accepts the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in pupil achievement of children from one-parent and two-parent families. Based on the implications of the study, the researcher concluded that children are extremely adaptable and achievement is not necessarily effected by being from the one-parent family. Schools should follow the trend of not "labeling" the single-parent family as "different." Because of the continual increasing number of children living in single-parent families there is a tremendous need for more research.

Wilson, Hugh K. (Specialist in Education, August, 1978)

A STUDY OF THE READABILITY LEVELS OF THE STATE ADOPTED SIXTH AND SEVENTH GRADE SOCIAL STUDIES TEXTBOOKS

Major investigations have shown that most social studies textbooks are written above the readability levels of the students for whom they were written. The purpose of this study was to assess the readability level of all state-adopted sixth and seventh grade social studies textbooks. The readability data collected were used as the major criteria in the selection of sixth and seventh grade social studies textbooks for adoption in Cobb County. The thirty-three textbooks were divided by grades into three categories: history, interdisciplinary textbooks, and geography. Two instruments, the Fry Readability Graph and the SMOG Grading Formula, were applied in assessing the readability of the textbooks. According to the results produced by the Fry Graph, eight of the textbooks were above grade level. The SMOG Grading Formula, however, placed one textbook on grade level and the other thirty-two textbooks above the designated grade level. Twenty-one of the textbooks showed internal readability level ranges of three to six grade levels. It was recommended that textbooks be carefully examined for readability level before adoption.

Yates, Delores Freeland, (Specialist in Education, June, 1978)

A STUDY OF THE CORRELATION BETWEEN SELF-CONCEPT AND READING ACHIEVEMENT OF BLACK CHILDREN OF LOW SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUNDS IN THE MIDDLE GRADES AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL LEVEL OF A LARGE BLACK METROPOLITAN HIGH SCHOOL

The purpose of this study was to investigate and determine whether a positive relationship exists among black students between reading achievement and self-concept at the middle grades and senior high level. It was intended that the information derived from this study would produce valuable information for teachers and parents with respect to this widely discussed and highly significant problem.

The study involved students from the Samuel Howard Archer High School. At the outset of the study, permanent record folders and other available data of all eighth and tenth graders were examined to give the researcher a working knowledge of the background of the population. A group of fifty students at each grade level was selected to participate in the study. Near the end of the school year, an instrument which measures self-concept was administered to these one hundred students. At the same time a reading achievement test was also administered. An analysis was made of scores on both tests to determine if there is any correlation between reading and self-concept at the middle grades and at the senior high level.

Only 12 of the 29 variables yielded by the *Tennessee Self-Concept Scale* were used for correlation with the total raw score of the *Traxler Silent Reading Test.* Variable number one, Total Conflict, appeared to be the only one to yield a substantially high positive correlation.

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Television Programs

(Wrote the script, directed performing groups, and performed on Clarinet and saxophone)

"Woodwind Instruments" CATV; Oct. 19, 1978

"Variety In Music." CATV; Oct. 26, 1978

Paper Readings

"New Techniques for Clarinet." Paper read at Research Session at Georgia Music Educators Association, Atlanta, January 27, 1978.

"Careers in Music Education." Paper read at Student Chapter Music Educators National Conference, Atlanta, January 28, 1978.

Musical Performances

Faculty recital – Woodwind Music, January 24, 1978, Cashen Hall, WGC

Senior Composition Recital of Dan Platt – Cashen Hall, WGC, January 12, 1978

Woodwind Quintet, Directed by G. Farmer – February 2, 1978, Cashen Hall, WGC

Student Convocation Recital, clarinet and flute duet, Cashen Hall, February 2, 1978

"A Little Night Music" 5 performances, clarinet and flute, February 21-25, WGC Auditorium, Woodwind Quintet, Director – G. Farmer, West Georgia Arts Council Concert, Lomason Regional Library, March 2, 1978.

Senior Composition Recital of Jeff McClendon – Cashen Hall, WGC, April 4, 1978

Woodwind Ensemble Recital, G. Farmer, Director, March 9, 1978, Cashen Hall, WGC

Woodwind Quintet Concert "Woodwind Instruments of the Orchestra" Villa Rica Middle Schook, January 14, 1978

Woodwind Quintet Concert "Woodwind Instruments of the Orchestra" Centralhatchee School, October 10, 1978

Woodwind Quintet Concert "Woodwind Instruments of the Orchestra" South Douglas Elementary School, October 24, 1978

Faculty Excahnge Concert, Clayton Junior College, November 8, 1978

Faculty Exchange Concert, DeKalb Community College – South Campus November 15, 1978

Student Convocation Recital, Cashen Recital Hall, WGC, September 16, 1978

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Hilt, Douglas R.

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October 8, 1974 – Recital; North Georgia College, Dahlonega
October 15, 1974 – Recital; West Georgia College
October 25, 1974 – Recital for American Liszt Society Festival; Buffalo, New York
April 2, 1975 – Recital; Clayton Junior College; Morrow
April 15, 1975 – Recital; West Georgia College
April 25, 1975 – Recital; West Georgia College (Language Day)
May 28, 1975 – Recital with Marianna Detrino, cellist; West Georgia College
January 20, 1976 – Recital; Georgia College, Milledgeville
January 27, 1976 – Recital with James and Stephanie Isaacson, violinists; West Georgia College
February 2, 1976 – Lecture-Recital for Decatur Music Teachers Association
February 10, 1976 – Recital; Jacksonville State University, Alabama
March 28, 1976 – Recital; Cedartown Junior Music Club
April 13, 1976 – Recital; West Georgia College
October 6, 1976 – Recital; Clayton Junior College, Morrow
October 7, 1976 – Recital; Valdosta State College
February 1, 1977 – Recital with Betty Sue Tolbert, painist; West Georgia College
March 19, 1977 – Recital; Clearwater, Florida
April 4, 1977 – Recital; Presbyterian College, Clinton, South Carolina
April 19, 1977 – Recital; West Georgia College
May 22, 1977 – Recital, Georgia State University, Atlanta
June, 1977 – Recital with Janet Stewart, Soprano, for National Association of Teachers of Singing Regional Meeting, West Georgia College
November 1, 1977 – Recital with Janet Stewart, West Georgia College
November 18, 1977 – Recital with Janet Stewart, Columbus, Georgia
February 7, 1978 – Performance with West Georgia College Woodwind Quinter, West Georgia College
March 2, 1978 – Performance with West Georgia College Woodwind Quinter, Neva Lomason Library
March 7, 1978 – Recital; Central Wesleyan College, South Carolina
March 8, 1978 – Recital; Anderson College, South Carolina
March 20, 1978 – Recital; Winthrop College, Rock Hill, South Carolina
April 6, 1978 – Recital; Columbus College
April 12, 1978 – Recital; DeKalb Community College, South Campus, Decatur
April 17, 1978 – Recital; West Georgia College
April 28, 1978 – Recital; Brunswick Junior College
May 15, 1978 – Soloist in Beethovan Concert No. 1 with Rome, Georgia Symphony Orchestra
June 20, 1978 – Recital; West Georgia College
June 21, 1978 – Recital; Emory University, Atlanta

October 20, 1978 – Recital; Kennesaw College
November 16, 1978 – Recital; Floyd Junior College, Rome
November 30, 1978 – Recital; Valdosta State College

Romanovicz, Dwight k.

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Scott, Carole

Book, *Your Financial Plan, A Consumers Guide,* Harper and Row, January, 1979.

Shank, W. A.

SOLO APPEARANCES

Copland: *The Quiet City:* Syracuse University Symphony Orchestra – 1961

Vivaldi: *Concerto in C Major* for two trumpets and orchestra
Syracuse University Symphony Orchestra – 1962
Quebec Symphony Orchestra – Feb. 21, 1967 and Feb. 29, 1967

Haydn: *Concerto for Trumpet and Orchestra*
Syracuse University Symphonic Band – Summer of 1962
Virginia State Symphony Orchestra – 1966
New York State Symphony Orchestra – 1966

Morrissey: *Concertino* for two trumpets, trombone and band
Syracuse University Symphonic Band – 1963

Morrissey: *Soliloquy for Trumpet:* Utica Municipal Band – 1963

Anderson: *Trumpeter's Lullaby:* Utica Municipal Band – 1963

Hummel: *Concerto for Trumpet and Orchestra*
Quebec Symphony Orchestra – Jan. 20, 1968, Jan. 30, 1968 and Feb. 6, 1968
CBC Canadian Broadcasting Corporation Radio Orchestra – Recording on March 1, 1968
Jackson Symphony Orchestra – January 16, 1972

Arban/Clarke: *The Carnival of Venice:* The University of Tennessee at Martin Concert Band – 1970

Arutunian: *Concerto for Trumpet and Orchestra*
Louisiana State University Symphony Orchestra – April 19, 1974

Mendez: The Bullfighter's Song: Hudson Falls H.S. Band-Jan. 13, 1977

PUBLIC RECITALS

Syracuse University – December 8, 1961 – Solo Recital May 19, 1963 – Solo Recital

Eastman School of Music – August 4, 1965 – Solo Recital

The University of Tennessee at Martin – April 9, 1970, January 18, 1971, May 4, 1972, and April 12, 1973

Louisana State University – July 6, 1972 – Solo Recital, August 1, 1973– Lecture Recital, February 4, 1974 – Chamber Music Recital, July 29, 1974 – Solo Recital, March 21, 1975 – Solo Recital

Radford College — February 5, 1975 —Lecture Demonstration of Ancient and Modern Trumpet Types

Bryan College — February 6, 1975 — Lecture Demonstration of Ancient and Modern Trumpet Types

Federation of Music Clubs, Martin, Tennessee — January 9, 1976 — Trumpet and organ recital Adirondack Community College — May 5, 1977

MUSIC REVIEWER

National Association of College Wind and Percussion Instructors Journal — 1974

RESEARCH AND PUBLICATIONS

An Essay Concerning the Understanding of Torelli's *Sinfonia con Tromba.* Rochester: Eastman School of Music, 1965.

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Short'n Sweet. for piano solo.

Variations on a Theme for Walking. for trumpet, Clarinet and Saxophone.

Short Invention for two trumpets.

Life for four part chorus. Words by Anna Laetitia Barbauld.

The Moon in the Heavens. for Medium voice and piano.

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"Non-Laboratory Activities for Chemistry." *Georgia Journal of Science,* 35 (1977), 114. (Abstract)

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"Pie in the Sky." *Chemistry,* January/February, 1978, pg. 31.

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Panelist, Georgia Section, American Chemical Society's Conference on the Drop/Fail Rate in General Chemistry, October 14, 1978.

"Where Has All the Sulfuric Acid Gone?" *Chemistry,* 51 (October, 1978), 10.

"Basic Mass Spectrometry (Review)." *Journal of College Science Teaching,* VIII:2 (1978), 124.

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"An Evaluation of Three Self-Paced Programs in General Chemistry." Paper presented at 27th Annual Convention of the National Science Teachers Association, March 23, 1979.

Tolbert, Betty Sue

January 19, 1979 – West Georgia College; Piano and Clarinet; Rhapsody in Blue by George Gershwin.

December 17, 18, 1978 – Tabernacle Baptist Church, Carrollton; Played Piano in performance in "Amahl and The Night Visitors" by Menotti.

December 3, 1978 – Tabernacle Baptist Church, Carrollton; Played harpsichord in performance of the Christmas portion of "Messiah" by Handel.

October 12, 1978 – Lit-Mu Club Evening Musicale at First Baptist Church, Carrollton; Fantasie in d minor by Mozart, solo piano.

September 14, 1978 – Fine Arts Faculty Recital, West Georgia College; Piano and Violin; Nocturne, Op. 9, No. 2 by Chopin; Playera, Op. 23, No. 1 by Sarasati; Mazurka, Op. 19 (The Village Fiddler) by Wieniawski.

May 16, 1977 – West Georgia College, Piano and Violin; Sonata in A Major, Op. 47 "Kreutzer" by Beethoven; Concerto in G Major For Three Violins and Concerto by Telemann; Scottish Fantasy for Violin and Piano by Max Bruch.

May 8, 1977 – West Georgia College; Piano Quintet in c minor by Dohnanyi; Betty Tolbert, piano with American Pro-Art String Quartet.

May 5, 1977 – University of Georgia; Piano and Violin and Piano and String Quartet; Sonata in A Major, Op. 47 "Kreutzer" by Beethoven and Quintet in c minor by Dohnanyi; Betty Tolbert, piano, with American Pro-Art String Quartet.

February 1, 1977 – West Georgia College; Duo Piano Recital, Betty Tolbert and George Mann, Pianists; Jesu, Joy of Man's Desiring by J.S. Bach-Hess, Sonata in G Major by J.C. Bach, Aria and Toccata by Dello Joio, Variations on a Theme of Haydn by Brahms, Suite for Two Pianos by Arensky and Scaramouche by Milhaud.

September 18, 1976 – Cartersville High School, Cartersville, Georgia. Piano and Violin; Sonata in C minor, Op. 45 by Grieg; Melodie by Gluck; Schoen Rosmarin by Kreisler; Nigun by Ernest Bloch; Scherzo-Tarentelle, Op. 16 by Wieniawski.

September 27, 1976 – West Georgia College; Piano and Violin; Sonata in c minor, Op. 45 by Grieg, Nigun by Bloch; Scherzo-Tarentelle, Op. 16 by Wieniawski.

July 13, 1976 – Wesleyan College, Macon, Georgia, Georgia Governor's Honors Program; Piano and Viblin; Sonata in c minor, Op. 45 by Grieg, Nigun by Bloch; Scherzo-Tarentelle, Op. 16 by Wieniawski.

July 13, 1976 – Wesleyan College, Macon, Georgia, Governor's Honors Program, Solo Piano Program (Mini Concert).Program:Jesu, Joy of Man's Desiring by J.S. Bach-Myra Hess; Preludes in c minor and g minor by Chopin; Waltz in A^{b} Major by Chopin; Preludes for Piano by Gershwin.

May 30, 1976 – Tabernacle Baptist Church, Carrollton, Concert of secular and sacred music; Scherzo in B Flat Minor by Chopin; Jesu, Joy of Man's Desiring by J.S. Bach-Hess; The Lord's Prayer by Malotte; Numerous other sacred arrangements.

May 30, 1976 – Performance for Phi Kappa Phi initiation at West Georgia College; Three Preludes for Piano by Gershwin.

May 23, 1976 – Accompanied West Georgia College Concert Choir in performance of Psalms by Lukas Foss (Two piano accompaniment with my student, Tisha Clark, at the second piano).

April 20, 1976 – "Mini Concert" for Carrollton Rotary Club; Scherzo in B flat minor by Chopin and Three Preludes for Piano by Gershwin.

May 27, 1975 — Accompanied West Georgia College Concert Choir in performance of Neve Liebeslieder,Op. 65 by J. Brahma (Piano duet accompaniment with George Mann playing the secondo).

November 4, 1974 — University of Georgia, Graduate solo recital, Des pas sur la Neige, Debussy; Fantasia in D Minor, Mozart; Sonata in F Minor, Op. 57, Beethoven; Waltz in A Flat Major, Op. 69, No. 1, Waltz in G Flat Major, Op. 70, No. 1, Nocturne in C Sharp Minor, Op. 27, No. 1, Scherzo in B Flat Minor — all by Chopin.

November 1, 1974 — Gainesville Junior College, Guest performer; Des pas sur la Neige, Debussy; Fantasia in D Minor, Mozart; Sonata in F.Minor, Op. 57, Beethoven; Waltz in A Flat Major, Op. 69, No. 1, Walta in G Flat Major, Op. 70, No. 1, Nocturne in C Sharp Minor, Op. 27, No. 1 Scherzo in B Flat Minor — all by Chopin.

October 29, 1974 — West Georgia College, Faculty Recital, Des pas sur la Neige, Debussy; Fantasia in D Minor, Mozart; Sonata in F Minor, Op. 57, Beethoven; Waltz in A Flat Major, Op. 69, No. 1, Waltz in G Flat Major, Op. 70, No. 1. Nocturne in C Sharp Minor, Op. 27, No. 1, Scherzo in B Flat Minor — all by Chopin.

October 21, 1974 — Georgia Southern College, Statesboro, Georgia, Guest Performer; Des pas sur la Neige, Debussy; Fantasia in D Minor, Mazart; Sonata in F Minor, Op. 57, Beethoven; Waltz in A Flat Major, Op. 69, No. 1, Waltz in G Flat Major, Op. 70, No. 1, Nocturne in C Sharp Minor, Op. 27, No. 1, Scherzo in B Flat Minor — all by Chopin.

October 17, 1974 — Berry College, Rome, Georgia, Guest Performer, Des pas sur la Neige, Debussy; Fantasia in D Minor, Mozart; Sonata in F Minor, Op. 57, Beethoven; Waltz in A Flat Major, Op. 69, No. 1, Waltz in G Flat Major, Op. 70, No. 1, Nocturne in C Sharp Minor, Op. 27, No. 1, Scherzo in B Flat Minor — all by Chopin.

October 6, 1974 — Young Harris College, Guest Performer, Des pas sur la Neige, Debussy; Fantasia in D Minor, Mozart; Sonata in F.Minor, Op. 57, Beethoven; Waltz in A Flat Major, Op. 69, No. 1, Waltz in G Flat Major, Op. 70, No. 1, Nocturne in C Sharpe Minor, Op. 27, No. 1, Scherzo in B Flat Minor — all by Chopin.

October 26, 1972 — West Georgia College, Faculty Recital; Sonata in f minor by Brahms.

May 19, 1970 — West Georgia College Faculty Recital; Lyric Pieces Op. 43 by Grieg and Trois Pieces by Poulenc.

March 13, 1969 — West Georgia College Faculty Recital; Sonata in B flat Major, K. 570 by Mozart; Three Preludes for Piano by Gershwin and Faschingsswank aus Wien by Schumann.

March 9, 1969 — Hawkinsville, Georgia; Sonata in B flat Major, K, 570 by Mozart; Three Preludes for Piano by Gershwin and Faschingsswank aus Wien by Schumann.

April 11, 1972 – West Georgia College, Accompanist for faculty voice concert given by Bruce Borton, Baritone. Works performed: Die Post, Das Wirtshaus, Heidenroslein, Du Bist Die Rue, Aufenthalt – all by Schubert; Trois Ballades de Villon by Debussy; General William Booth Enters Into Heaven, Serenity, At the River, The Greatest Man, The Children's Hour, Charley Rutledge – all by Charles Ives.

April 3, 1973 – West Georgia College, Faculty concert of works for Violin and Piano. Program: Sonata in D Major, Op. 5 by Corelli; Sonata in D Major, Op. 12, No. 1 by Beethoven and Sonata No. 1 in G Major, Op. 78 by Brahms.

October 27, 1971 – West Georgia College, Faculty Chamber Music concert; Suite for Violin, Clarinet and Piano by Darius Milhaud.

May 13, 1971 – West Georgia College, Faculty Chamber Music concert; Suite for Violin, Clarinet, and Piano by Darius Milhaud.

December, 1969 – West Georgia College, Harpsichordist in West Georgia College Concert Choir performance of "Magnificat".

May 15, 1969 – West Georgia College, Faculty Chamber Music Concert; Concerto in A Minor, Op. 3, No. 8 for Violin, Viola, and Piano by Vivaldi; Concerto in D Minor for two Violins and Piano by J.S. Bach.

May 14, 1969 – West Georgia College, Faculty Chamber Music Concert; Music of Mourning (I Slowly, II Moderately, III Fast, Iv Very Slowly) by Paul Hindemith.

Ulrich, Walter

Ulrich, Walter. "Recent Changes in the Nature of Inherency." Paper presented at the April, 1976 Convention of the Central States Speech Association, Chicago, Illinois.

"Toward a Justification of Inherency." Paper presented at the April, 1976 Convention of the Kansas State Speech Association, Wichita, Kansas.

"On Debating Inherency." in *Perspectives on Criminal Justice: Penal Reform, Pretrial Proceedure, Gun Control.* Edited by Charles Kaufman, Robin Rowland, and Frank Cross. Lawrence, Kansas: University of Kansas Debate Squad, 1976.

"A Theoretical Discussion of the Counterplan." in *Health Care in America: Perspectives and Issues. Edited by Randy Lake, Robin Rowland, and Frank* Cross. Lawrence, Kansas: Division of Continuing Education, 1977.

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"A Process View of Argument." *Journal of Human Interaction, I* (Summer, 1978), 38-43.

"Tabula Rasa as an Approach to the Judging of Debates." Peper presented at the November, 1978 Convention of the Speech Communication Association, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

Wagner, Donald R.

Review of *The Totalitarian Temptation* by Jean-Francois Revel. *Georgia Political Science Association Journal,* VI, No. 1 (Spring, 1978), 138-140.

"Facts, Values, and the Sense of Sensory Experience." Paper read at American Political Science Association, New York, New York, September, 1978.

"Human Nature and Politics." Panel chairmen at Georgia Political Science Association, Savannah, Georgia, February, 1979.

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The purpose of this publication is to provide encouragement for faculty research and to make available results of such activity. The *Review,* published annully, accepts original scholarly work and creative writing. West Georgia College assumes no responsibility for contributors' views. The style guide is Kate L. Turabian. *A Manual for Writers.* Although the *Review* is primarily a medium for the faculty of West Georgia College, other sources are invited.

An annual bibliography includes doctoral dissertations, major recitals and major art exhibits. Theses and articles in progress or accepted are not listed. A faculty member's initial listing is comprehensive and appears in the issue of the year of his employment. The abstracts of all master's theses and educational specialist's projects written at West Georgia College are included as they are awarded.

MYSTICISM AS EVERYDAY LIFE: THE RECURRING MYSTICAL MOMENT

by James B. Klee*

Zen is your everyday life.

Nirvana and Samsara are one.

Before I studied Zen, mountains were mountains, trees were trees. Then as I began to study Zen the mountains and trees were no longer just mountains and trees. After I experienced satori, the mountains were mountains, the trees trees.

A rose is a rose is a rose.

The above paraphrased expressions relect one of my recently realized notions — in fact convictions that the mystical experience is ordinary; that it is an everyday thread-of-life aspect of experience which is the continuous thread of karma, in maya, and atman, and which is the subject-object continuum. William James called it the stream of consciousness. F.S.C. Northrop called it the "immediately apprehended differentiated (or undifferented in the core at atman) aesthetic continuum." Aldous Huxley called it the perennial philosophy. A. H. Maslow recognized it as "peak experience." Yet it is only as the last that the mystical experience is mostly conceived, a *rare* mysterious occasional event which happens at best but rarely and then only to a very select few. And many of these very few, at least in the West, have tended to identify it with some "super" divine "millenial" consciousness which as the "holy" has turned the experience into an object of an end game that ignored all its "ecological" manifestations. (The distinction is Thomas Merton's.) As Harvey Wheeler recently pointed out, the end result has been the total desanctification of all life experience except some impossibly rare moment that left all else pale and insignificant and ignoble and ignorable and exploitable, dross for misues. Witness not only the destruction of the environment in the name of man's alleded dominion over the earth, waters, and living forms, but also of man by man in the name of God and of man's body by himself in the same alledged cause. Now, though this has been especially true of the West, the pursuit of austerities has also been a dominant motif in the major part of the East as well. Indeed it appears for the nonce to have been a universal human trait. No wonder then desire even of "the holy" is so roundly witnessed as the root of man's misery by those few individuals who like the Buddha were able to see beyond such narrow conceptions of the holy-(w) holy.

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*Professor of Psychology, West Georgia College

The resanctification of the whole and all its parts is a necessity if we are not to continue the ruthless destruction of not only the ecological surround, but of man by man, and of self by self. But obviously this can not be legislated or forced beyond a few defensive or protective measures. It can truly come only by the direct experience of the holy in each part or fraction of the whole that man is capable of experiencing, each in its turn. For this the traditional analytic pursuit of the holy as only one part separable from the whole prepares us but poorly. Traditionally when any one fraction appeared as divine in and of itself it was expected to be so forever. It was *permanently* enshrined and turned into an idol. No wonder the concept of maya grew. All such moments regarded without reference to their temporal condition, their momentariness, could only in the context of permanentness appear as illusionary. Any such "good" regarded as absolute without recognition of temporal relativity could only be deceptive. The momentariness of any "good", that is its own being in iteslf, its suchness, indeed the very possibility and fact of continuance, was scorned because *permanence* was sought instead of the eternity of change accepted. In the context of permanence any moment can be only a disappointment. Its continuity into fading staleness as best could warn only against any kind of attachment. Yet in the context of eternity each moment is the realization of all that is (w) holy but each moment must be relinguished before the glory of the next moment and its own self-realization. In other words, it is not the temporality of the moment which is illusory but the attempt to arrest it, to make it essentially non-temporal, to try to hold on to it and *use* it in other contexts or dimensions of analysis, especially those that are formal and/or qualitative and the quantitative and/or evaluative. Indeed is this not why man falls? Should he try to know as permanently *good* and *evil* that which was only the wealth of the moment, he could be led only into ignorance of the next moment's own particular virtue. Is man's fall only the punishment of an act of misinterpretation of the divine order in the sense of its pattern?

The temptation to arrest and hold the moment past its momentariness is one that to a large degree our species has circumvented even if individual members or groups have succumbed to such temptation. And, of course, such "sin" has its temporary successes if defined primarily in a defensive way. Those creatures who have so sinned are among the most numerous and "successful on the earth. Witness the insects and other body armored creaturs, or those who wear a mantle of glory on a special basis, as mane of lion, plumage of bird, crown of antlers of stag and ram. Man too temporarily seems fair for permanence with his uniforms, surplices, feather headdresses, or his pyramids, superdreadnaughts, palaces, churches, or temples, and nations. Yet as we look back upon the temporary permanences of the past, it is to the tourist in us that they most appeal.

Today children wear the once-honored warbonnet in play, our hippies now outbead the rosary, outgrow the sacred earlock but as a game, and even make the distinctions of sexual dress no longer special and permanent. We seem as a species on verge of breaking over from the insectoidal exosketetal protective armor of culture affected by traditional societies to a freer and endoskeletal or vertebrate, i.e., with "backbone", more relativistic cultural style. As Ortega has repeatedly suggested, we are moving from the ideal of "invertebrate" Spain to an appreciation of the existential life. We are "shipwrecked" as he termed it. Curiously this we share with all vertebrates, indeed even chordates, but only recently have we begun to use culture in a way appropriate to the daring choices we had already made on the evolutionary voyage as animals. But what does a "vertebrate" life mean for our pruposes *vis a vis* the mystical experiences temporally conceived?

James found the answer so obvious that in the end he was mystified that it could be other. In the flow, the karmic ongoingness, one goes from one event or happening to another. Truth had the pragmatic finality of the moment, of a *now* never to be repeated. Life, mind, experience or consciousness was essentially phenomenological; the subject and object were at best hypothetical divisions made of the unitary experience. Each event sacred and unalterable in its momentary suchness made a pluralistic conception absolutely essential, not that there might not be an overweaning wholeness which could be misleadingly called "one". Yet in that whole the sanctity of the suchness was maintained. A story related by Maurice Friedman about D.T. Suzuki might express this. Suzuki was being entertained at Sarah Lawrence College in connection with a lecture and conversation developed with a Hindu lady about basic monism. She had implied that a variety of events, such as a shoe, cough, god, all had an underlying monistic substrate and solicited Suzuki's agreement with this position. He disagreed, asserting each was entirely its own. Yet each was an aspect of the whole. Each was itself as such. Each was its own mystery. And like each haiku, each work of art, each was a moment or short series of moments in itself.

Why do we accept this when pointed out yet so soon forget? The most obvious answer is our relation to and understanding of what we conceive of as repetition of similarity and identity. To create a mathematics of repetition of identical elements, though useful in a large but limited sense, and then to apply such a calculus to living events without regard to the uniqueness of both the moment and individual event is a great temptation to say the least. Repeatedly we fail to resist such an overwhelming temptation. Despite our protestations as to the limited intent of census or statistics, we succumb to the almost irresistable lure of reduction of events to the qualitative or the quantitative. And of course it does work for a while. After all, events rarely differ that much. If there were not an almost essential repetition there could not be an organism, a body, a word or

symbol, a culture, indeed evolution. That some event "recur" more often than not, more often that other events enables us to develop a sense of continuity. But if we only sense the recurrence and not the continued miracle of its creation and recreation, we lose the sense of vitality of the renewed moment to that of boredom. We come to expect its recurrence. We act as if the golden age were ever past or ever still ahead instead of ever present. And of course we begin to desire occurrence or recurrence and suffer the miseries of frustration, of unfulfilled desire and longing. The more we desire a repetition or the thoughtfully conceived ideal, the less sacred each moment becomes and the more we ignore the mystery of the moment. The more we act in belief in repetition of past and future, the less faith we have in the actual essential partial recurrence of the ecological-organism unity without which life ceases to exist. Even though such repetition is seldom exact and enormous flexibility is required even to recognize relevant recurrences, yet on the whole it has been largely sufficient enough to have brought the current species to their present vitality. And unless man intervenes to an exaggerated degree there is little reason not to expect its somewhat fitful continuance. Sufficient at least to retain a vaguely justifiable faith. For if it ever altogether ceased as it threatens to in a major earthquake, drought, or flood, fire or storm, then that would be that, period. Yet so far death has never ceased. Is this death, the ultimate fear that makes us fiercely want exact repetition? My dog on Easter Sunday lost to death his best friend and most constant companion, my other dog. Although obviously disrupted by non-recurrence of his constant companion, yet the rest of his life seems not to have lost its zestful vitality. Is he the less for his failure to grieve? Has not the human animal also but temporarily strayed from such wonderful vitality albeit for several tens of thousands of years? The temptation to arm himself against his awareness of death by means of the new possibilities of symbol, tool, and culture so recently created was and is great. But we are possibly on the verge of a new sense of consciousness based on the recurrent divinity of the moment of the continued sacredness of each event of the (w)holiness of eternity. Perhaps as we realize this we will be able to give up the defensive and armored attempt to make permanent any one particular revelation in history. (Incidentally, perhaps such inspiration is relegated to "history" to reduce the obligatory sense of relevance each such event inspires.)

The reorientation of consciousness from a concentrated desire-ordered pursuit of a seemingly monistically conceived goal (so effective in creating our current cultural achievements and also in creating the crises now apparent as the result of such an effort) to a more flexible pluralistic orientation which acknowledges the sacredness of each concurrent event not to mention their recurrence calls for a life style for which we have little or at best vague preparation. That a continuous creative and recreative

effort has to be made is obvious. Yet a continuously creative and recreative milieu is also given even though it can not be expected in any exact way. A pluralistic orientation also implies the possibility of rhythmic alternations of experience more complex than the monoemphatic patterns to which the West has accustomed itself, the oom-pah-pah of waltz, rhumba, foxtrot or big beat rock. I would suggest instead the polyrhythms of Indian or African music with their emphases on complex occurrences and recurrences rather than the thematic repetitions of melody and harmony so long the standby of the analytical monistic, monothematic and monotheisitc West.

This unexpected recurrence of the sacred is what to me C.S. Lewis means when he speaks of being "surprised by joy." Rather than seeking pleasure the "doing good" of traditional religious observance (the pleasure principle, the expected payoff) or postponing gratification while more clever means to the goal are devised, "doing better" (the reality principle of the scientific West), a third way is potentially emergin, a "doing best." But this would be not merely the perfectionistic continuation of good and better so much as a turn toward *relevance.* The first two are warned against by Adam's fall from grace, by eating of the tree of knowledge of good and evil. The third way involves a comparison of values on a qualitative as well as quantitative dimension and especially is cogniscent of *presence,* of temporality which takes full advantage of what is being given in all polyrhythmical dimensions. In this sense each event is passed through and released in turn, not grasped, held, accumulated, imprisoned, arrested and ultimately fossilized. The rhythmical conception of breathing in and exhaling again, inhaling and breathing out so typical of Eastern meditation and yoga seems the better physiological analogy than the peak experience of sexuality and/or success achievement (salvation?) so typical of Western emphases. For ultimately the acceptance of relinquishment of sacred experience makes the experience of divine presence far more possible and probable than the holding on to as if permanent like a mounted fish or head trophy on the wall. For the latter works only by exclusion, the fish lasts longest when all forms of vitality especially those useful forms of decomposition (which make possible the recycling of the fish and hence its resurrection and reexperience) are most excluded. By purifying (purification always excludes other aspects), by excluding life and death we make the mounted fish permanently ours but all of us are just a bit more dead in consequence. Better to have "thrown it back" and fished again another day. (Is not the latter closer to the true meaning of the resurrection? Are not the dead to bury the dead?) In this sense the ecstacy of the peak experience is the more regressive than the potentially cyclical, albeit irregular and seldom extreme analogy of breathing, indeed of the life-death cycle itself. Growing to, passing through, and letting go only to grow again would seem the more authentic way of realizing the ever-

present nature of the divine than to try to grasp and mount it on wall or altar. True, it is more mundane more "temporal", less ecstatic, or more ordinary; but that is where I started. Zen is our everyday life. But then today is the first day of the rest of our lives, and in the rest we could realize the ever recurrent divinity inherent in all aspects of the continuous stream of consciousness. This ever present sacredness we now often ignore and ignoble by our desire for an ultimate and exlcusively "divine" god-boject permanently enshrined and isolated from the whole by being made the one and only. For this exclusive "god" we are recurrently tempted to trade the continual sacredness of eternity. How many more tens of thousands of years will our species go before we have broken out of these attempts to freeze into permanence a few revelations when we could have continuous access to each and every moment? But then how courageous we would have to be. To be! Dare we risk it? But then could we even possibly lose, for isn't it all sacred all of the time?

TOO FEW FOR THE STATUS QUO: SOME ENROLLMENT ISSUES FOR THE FUTURE

John C. Upchurch*

Demographic data recently formulated by the Bureau of the Census indicate a substantial shrinkage of the 18-22 year-old population cohort for the period 1975-1992. The extent of the skrinkage can be determined by the following statistics: in 1975 there were 4.2 million 18-year-olds in the United States. A decade later, in 1985, the total population of this age group will decline to 3.6 million, and in 1992, to 3.2 million. Expressed in percentages, the decline between 1975 and 1985 will reach 15 and between 1975 and 1990, approximately 24. It is well to keep in mind that these statistics are not based upon theoretical projections but on persons already born, with due consideration having been given to actuarial projections of mortality.[1]

Since the 18-22 year-old cohort represents the traditional college-age student, the anticipated decline in absolute numbers suggests a potential threat to the status quo in many institutions of higher education. Not only will colleges and universities be forced to adapt to a diminishing enrollment pool of 18-22 year-olds during the next decade or so, they also will encounter increasing competition for students from other postsecondary educational institutions such as vocational and technical schools, proprietary schools, and industry-associated institutes, colleges, and universities.

Another element of competition, one often neglected by those contemplating the ramifications of a decline in the number of 18-22 year-olds, is that of military requirements. Assuming that the nation chooses to maintain an active military force of 2.1 million persons during the 1980-1992 period, and that women continue to join the armed forces at today's annual rate of 40,000, the military must recruit (or perhaps conscript) up to one of three male 18-year-olds each year through 1992.[2]

Fewer traditional-age students and increased competition are not the only factors likely to negatively affect enrollment in colleges and

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[1]The census data are reported in Cathy Henderson, *Changes in Enrollment by* 1985 (Washington: American Council on Education, 1977), pp. 12, 15. See also Leon F. Bouview, *U.S. Population in 2,000 — Zero Growth or Not,* vol. 30, no. 5 (Washington: Population Reference Bureau), pp. 18-20.

[2]Thomas W. Carr, "Education in the Military: A Look into the Future," mimeographed (Washington: Department of Defense, 1977), p. 1.

universities in the near future. Of increasing concern is cost. Put simply, attending an institution of higher education is expensive, and it will be more so in the years to come. Even at a public institution, expenses currently can exceed $3,000 per year. Add to this the effects of inflation on family budgets and the fact that little financial aid is available for part-time students and those who come from middle income families. Related to the cost factor is the increasing realization by parents, existing students, and potential students that the economic value of a college degree has slipped badly in the marketplace.

The gradual emergence of a poor-benefit ratio is a study in complexity well beyond the scope of this essay; however, two interrelated factors should be mentioned because they seem to be directly related to the problem. The first of these had its beginnings in the post-World War II period and the educational opportunities granted veterans by a grateful nation. The doors of higher education were opened to many individuals who otherwise never would have had the opportunity to enter college. This egalitarian thrust was especially prominent during the 1960s when the nation's economy was expanding rapidly. It resulted in open door admissions policies, the creation of hundreds of new postsecondary institutions (especially junior colleges), and in the rapid growth of most pre-existing colleges and universities.

In opening its doors to all during the 1960s and 1970s, the academy admitted a considerable number of students who were ill-equipped to do passing work in the context of traditional standards. Remediation programs were developed to help prepare the unprepared to meet the challenges of standard college work. Through dedication and intensive study, some poorly prepared students succeeded, thus justifying open admissions policies and remediation efforts. However, some damage may have been done to academic standards.

To open door admission policies may be added the second factor: the effects of the Vietnam War. Beginning in 1965, the federal government began a policy of draft deferments for students enrolled in colleges and universitites. For nearly a decade many students entered the academy to escape the draft.[3] During this time, pressure was on faculty to aid these students in maintaining a satisfactory grade point average; otherwise students faced the prospects of fighting an unpopular war. Rather than

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[3]According to President John R. Silber of Boston University, "Such deferments represented class legislation that was a throwback to the days of the Civil War when the affluent could hire substitutes to be drafted in their place." See "Standards Versus Opportunity: The Unnecessary Conflict," in *Students and Their Institutions: A Changing Relationship*, eds., J. W. Peltason and Marcy V. Massengale (Washington: American Council on Education, 1978), p. 81.

placing the burden of performing at the traditional level of academic respectability, many faculty loosened grading students.[4]

As a result of open door admissions policies, the Vietnam War, and grade inflation, college and university degree holders are commonplace today. Many graduates are underemployed or unemployed. Moreover, employers too frequently have encountered graduates of accredited institutions of higher education who have inadequate writing and computational skills. The bottom line is that a college degree has lost its mystique and too much of its meaning.

If, as suggedted above, the 1980s and early 1990s will be characterized by (1) a shrinking enrollment pool of traditional college-age students, (2) a smaller percentage of 18-22 year-olds choosing to attend college, and (3) a diminished cost-benefit ratio, it is clear that the academy must face its problems with vision and determination. To do otherwise is to risk enforcement of stringent fiscal (and human) retrenchment measures — which may occur anyway despite our best efforts.

The basic premise of this essay is that the academy, especially the smaller, undergraduate-oriented institutions, cannot maintain the status quo in the years to come. Since the only constant in academe is change itself, it is imperative that each institution, its faculty and administration, meet the future with policies and strategies designed to maximize opportunities. The remainder of this discussion relates to several steps that should be considered as potential responses to impending change.

1. Carefully develop an institutional mission statement and goals that reflect tomorrow's demands as well as today's reality. This should be done with utmost care and tempered with the realization that no college or university can be all things to all people. Gauge educational effectiveness on the bais of the mission and goals.
2. Engage in a continuous process of short-and long-term planning. Identify academic, fiscal, and facility priorities. Develop strategies for taking advantage of changes in program demands. Undertake longitudinal studies of student populations as well as follow-up studies of graduates; in this way, an assessment program can be on-going and thus play an important role in the planning process.
3. Attempt to maintain credit enrollment by making a concerted effort to attract students that are both younger and older than those represented by the 18-22 year-old group. Design programs and utilize teaching strategies that will meet the needs of nontraditional-age students.

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4. Nationwide the average grade has moved from a C in 1965 to B-. At the same time this has occurrred, evidence indicates that an increasing percentage of students are poorly prepared for college work. Even distinguished institutions offer remedial work in grammer, composition, and mathematics. See Silber, "Standards Versus Opportunity." p. 83.

4. Develop outreach programs, to be held on-and off-campus, to serve the needs of persons living within the primary service area. In return, the institution will gain new friends, and the publicity value will be great.
5. Support the concept of life-long learning. It is here to stay and will help academe in business in the years ahead.
6. Reaffirm the ideals of scholarship and excellence as realistic goals of the college experience.
7. Work to develop means of providing financial aid to older and part-time students. College scholarship applications are not designed for the housewife, and student aid is seldom available for students carrying less than a full academic load. Consequently, it is imperative that we work toward the implementation of a tuition assistance program for all students.
8. We have come too far in our commitment to universal higher educational opportunities to turn back now, but we can develop a more realistic balance between academic standards and student performance. Be willing to say to some students that a vocational program may be better for a job objective than a four-year or even a graduate degree.
9. Do not overrate the economic value of a college degree. Instead, be forceful in talking about the reasons for a college education that are not at all related to employment.
10. Work to develop and implement effective student recruitment and marketing strategies designed to appeal to each of the several publics that the institution wishes to serve.
11. Remember that higher education must adjust to a world that will demand new things of it. Be prepared to develop programs that will add distinctiveness to the institution as well as meet societal and student needs.
12. Always take advantage of opportunities to speak in positive terms about the institution, its students, faculty, programs, etc., especially when talking with persons outside of the academic community.
13. Develop an active public relations program so that pertinent information is fully reported in a timely manner to those who should be informed.
14. Use every appropriate avenue to insure even-handed funding policies which will permit the institution to compete effectively for students and maintain its integrity.

The steps listed above are an incomplete compilation of activities in which faculty and administrators should be engaged in view of the impending enrollment difficulties. They are intended merely to provoke thought, discussion, and action. Some may well consider these steps to be impractical or even unworkable. Perhaps this is true. However, the basic

premise that the academy soon will experience the full effects of an enrollment pool shrinkage of traditional-age students is beyond debate. The question is "Can we discern opportunities in adversity and, if so, will we be prepared to react to events in a well-planned, rational manner?"

THE LOCAL COMMUNITY AND GLOBAL AWARENESS: THE CASE FOR THE WEST GEORIGA AREA

Paul E. Masters, Jr.*

A Conversation with a Lasting Effect

Student:

What courses in the political science department do you teach?

Professor:

International relations and comparative politics. In terms of specific geographical areas, I offer courses on Latin America, the Soviet Union and Western Europe.

Student·

Oh, that's foreign stuff. I'm not interested in that; it's too distant, too far away. Don't you teach about things closer to home, more local?

Professor:

No. Sorry, I can't help you.

The above dialogue occurred during my first year at West Georgia College. In the three years since then it has returned to haunt me many times. Most students perceive international studies to be esoteric, complex, and not terribly relevant to their daily lives. This attitude is reflected in the decreasing enrollment in international studies programs in colleges and universities throughout the United States. Yet, at the same time, we hear and read more and more about global interdependence and the global village in which we all live. We are reminded of this situation everyday as we drive our Japanese or German car to the gas station to fill our tank with gasoline from Saudi Arabia or Nigeria so we can go to the grocery store to buy Brazilian or Colombian coffee which we drink every morning after our Swiss clock signals the beginning of another day. Although we participate in such activities on a daily basis, few people perceive them as international in character; they are seem simply as routine activities with little significance beyond the local community.

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The purpose of this paper is to set forth a proposal for a research-action project that will enable both students and citizens of the West Georgia area better to perceive the international activities in which they are engaged.[1] The basic assumption of this project is that the local community can be used as a learning laboratory in which to study world affairs. Local communities provide the facilities and institutions through which many international transactions take place: airports, banks, corporate headquarters, churches, universities, travel agencies, importers and exporters.[2] These facilities and institutions link the local community to the rest of the world. A vivid portrayal of the linkages between the West Georgia area and the global system will increase the awareness students and citizens have of the world in which they live. An inventory of these international linkages will help people to see that such activities are not distant and irrelevant but rather near and observable.

This project is labeled "research-action" because it is felt that the research on these linkages will increase awareness of the world society which, in turn, will lead to increased participation in foreign affairs on the part of the local citizenry. This project goes beyond the confines of academia to the various countries traditionally served by West Georgia College; thus it is hoped it will have relevance to public policy.

The Difficulties in Perceiving the International Dimensions of Our Lives

An analysis of local communities reveals that international activity tends to take place in three broad sectors of community life. The economic sector is the most obvious one. This sector includes banks with their various transactions such as the transference of funds to their counterparts in different countries; businesses, many of which have branches abroad; and service industries such as insurance companies that insure merchant vessels. The second sector is the professional one. This sector includes lawyers with clients that have business affairs in other countries; university faculty doing research abroad; and foreign students who add a cosmopolitan flavor to the local campus. The third sector has been labeled mass activities. This sector includes the local churches which give money to alleviate world hunger; various voluntary groups such as the League of Women Voters that maintain an interest in international affairs; and

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[1]This project is a replication of the Columbus in the World: The World in Columbus Project directed by Chadwick F. Alger of the Mershon Center, Ohio State University.

[2]Chadwick F. Alger, *Your Community in the World: The World in Your Community* (Columbus: Ohio State University, Mershon Center, 1974), p. 3.

cultural exchange groups which travel abroad to spread goodwill.[3] The reasons for these international activities are not greatly different from the reasons for domestic ones. The local community establishes linkages with the global society in order to exchange money, goods, people and information.[4] Few people purposely engage in international activities; they become involved simply as they go about their routine daily business. As individual citizens make money, help people, acquire knowledge, disseminate knowledge or seek pleasure, they become involved in processes that spill across national boundaries. Community activities like these on the part of millions of people establish the basic outline of international relations.[5]

Everyday of our lives we are involved in the business, religious, educational, and cultural institutions of our community, yet we fail to perceive these activities as having an international dimension. Why does this failure of perception exist? There seems to be two reasons for this: (1) the socialization process through which we learn about the world, and (2) the feeling that there exists very little opportunity for personal participation in international affairs.[6]

When children are growing up they first see and touch those things close to their home and neighborhood. Gradually they are introduced to the wider community through visits to the city hall, the police station, and the fire house. The next layer of experience is the state or region, followed by the nation and finally the world. Thus children come to grips with their environment through distinct layers of experience. The global society is perceived as only accessible from the national border which is many layers away from the local community. As a result of this socialization process, international activities are thought of as "remote," "far away," and controlled by people in "distant" cities like Washington and New York.[7] Since world affairs are not felt to be part of the daily realm of experience, no great interest is shown towards the global society.

This process of socialization imprints on our minds the traditional perception in international relations that focuses almost exclusively on the nation-state. The maps and globes used in our schools distinguish countries with different colors and clearly marked national boundaries. Americans often feel that foreign policy begins at the water's edge, some

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[3]Karen A. Mingst, "Teaching Global Interdependence Using Local Data: Problems and Pitfalls," *International Studies Notes,* V (Winter, 1978), 12.

[4]Chadwick F. Alger, " 'Foreign' Policies of U.S. Publics," *International Studies Quarterly,* XXI (June, 1977), 296-297.

[5]*Ibid.*, 302.

[6]Chadwick F. Alger, "Extending Responsible Public Participation in International Affairs," *Exchange,* XIV (Summer, 1978), 17.

[7]*Ibid.*

distance from their immediate surroundings. Many human activities that we engage in are thought of in national terms vis-a-vis other nation-states in the world. This image of the world is reinforced by our customs of data collection. We can research how much the United States imports or exports or even how much our state imports or exports, but it is virtually impossible to find such data dealing with the local community. This is true despite the fact that the national data are simply a summation of all the activities that take place in local communities throughout the country.[8] Such customs of data collection add to our inability to perceive the international dimensions of our daily lives. This entire process of socialization isolates people in the global society.

The second factor that blinds us to the international dimensions of our lives is the feeling that the individual citizen has little opportunity for personal participation in foreign affairs. The decision-making process is thought to be very distant from most of us. We have been socialized to believe that this type of policy-making is especially complex, esoteric and should be left to those "experts" in Washington and New York who have the necessary training and experience to cope with such difficulties. This contributes to the wide-spread disinterest in international education mentioned earlier in this paper. Why study world affairs? After all, the "experts" will take care of everything. This attitude creates a self-fulfilling prophecy: since people feel there is no room for their participation in foreign affairs, they do not bother to acquire international education, and thus never develop the necessary skills which will prepare them for such participation.[9]

Both democratic and authoritarian governments have never expected much citizen participation in international affairs. When the democratic movements of the world overthrew the various royal families, citizen participation was expected in domestic but not foreign affairs. Constitutional provisions and practice provide heads of state with special privileges in foreign policy.[10] Many point to political philosophers like John Locke to support the idea that in terms of citizen participation there is a very distinct division between domestic and foreign policy.[11] Our system of federalism tends to promote this belief. The division of powers

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[8]Alger, " 'Foreign' Policies of U.S. Publics," 295.

[9]Alger, "Extending Responsible Public Participation in International Affairs," 18.

[10]Chadwick F. Alger, *A World of Cities or Good Foreign Policies Begin At Home* (Columbus: Ohio State University, Mershon Center. 1976), pp. 9-10.

[11]William O. Chittick, "Individuals, Local Publics, and World Affairs," (Paper presented at the 20th Annual Meeting of The International Studies Association, Toronto, Canada, March 21-24, 1979), 3.

into national, state and local governments leads many individuals at the local level to regard international affairs as rather remote, something handled at the national level.[12] Citizens defer to the "experts" in Washington and New York because they lack a feeling of efficacy in world affairs; after all, in such matters even congressmen tend to defer to these same "experts" in the executive branch. Because of this situation people tend to gravitate more toward domestic issues where they feel greater efficacy.[13]

Professional political scientists have done little to alleviate this situation. Most scholars continue to assert that foreign policy is different from domestic policy because it is concerned with vital subjects like national interest and national security. Thus foreign policy is more important. The acceptance of this uniqueness has left the study of world affairs in the hands of those political scientists who continue to focus exclusively on the nation-state and its political and military activities.[14] It is questionable whether such an approach is wise when we live in an interdependent global society in which the line dividing foreign and domestic affairs is becoming increasingly blurred.

Chadwick Alger suggests replacing this *system-of-nations perspective* with an *international society-of-individuals perspective:*

> (Scholars should) look upon those persons from whatever nation . . . as a society of individuals. In this society there are groups — religious, professional, ethnic, national etc. The importance of nation groups is a matter that must be empirically verified since it will vary in different parts of the society and change through time.[15]

This international society-of-individuals perspective is adopted in this research-action project because it offers a fresh and challenging approach to the study of international relations. Individuals interact as individuals and in groups other than their national group such as religious, professional, and ideological groups. Such a perspective does not deny the importance of the nation-state in the international system but says it is more

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[12]*Ibid,,* 10-11.

[13]Alger, *Your Community in the World: The World in Your Community,* P. 64.

[14]Alger, " 'Foreign' Policies of U.S. Publics, " 278.

[15]Chadwick F. Alger, "Comparision of Intranational and International Politics," *American Political Science Review,* LVII (June, 1963), 408.

fruitful to look at other interactions beside state interaction. This paradigm can help individuals better to understand the role they play in the world system. Political scientists must look at individual interactions and various group interactions other than the state to gain new insights into international politics.

Using the international society-of-individuals perspective, this paper is a study of the politics of the world society and the individuals that compose such a society. "The primary referents of this analysis are the planet Earth and nature, along with man and his work upon that planet."[16] The basic orientation is global, that is, a study of earth politics or geocentric orientation is global, that is, that is a study of earth politics or geocentric politics. The dictionary defines geocentric as viewing the earth as the center of perspective.[17] The study of geocentric politics takes into account the technological advances in the post-World War II era and the increasing interdependence of the world produced by these advances. Such a study recognizes that it is static and dangerous to continue to think of the world as divided into action-states when the world is truly turning into a global or world society. Robert Harper says throughout most of history" . . . mankind did exist in separate, almost isolated cultural islands . . . now most of humanity is a part of a single, world-wide system."[18] This notion of the world is well-summarized in the following observation by Barbara Ward:

> Most of the energies of our society tend toward unity — the energy of science and technological change, the energy of curiosity and research, of self-interest and economics, the energy — in many ways the most violent of them all — the energy of potential aggression and destruction. We have become neighbors in terms of inescapable physical proximity and instant communication. We are neighbors in the risk of total destruction.[19]

As the world becomes increasingly interdependent, it moves closer to a world society or single human community.

We are all part of this emerging world society whether we like it or not. There is no need to ask individuals to become involved in world affairs; global interdependence guarantees their involvement. The significance of the international society-of-individuals perspective is that it can be used to bring this involvement into focus and foster responsible participation. Such a perspective is not one of idealism but rather one of realism; global interdependence is reality, to deny it is to deny reality. The job of the social

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[16]George A. Modelski, *Principles of World Politics* (New York: the Free Press, 1972), p.

[17]*Ibid.*, p. 15

[18]*Robert Harper, "Georgraphy's Role in General Education," Journal of Geography,* LXV (April, 1966), 182.

[19]Barbara Ward, *Spaceship Earth* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1966), p. 14.

scientist is to provide students with analytical tools that describe and explain the world in which they live. The international society-of-individuals perspective and the local linkage approach are tools that will help citizens in the West Georgia area understand the rapidly changing world system.

West Georgia in the World: The World in West Georgia

Individuals in communities throughout the West Georgia area are part of the emerging global society. This relationship can be brought into focus by analyzing the local linkages of three basic sectors of community life: economic, professional, and mass activities. The economic sector in the West Georgia area has very obvious linkages. The telex in local banks indicates what funds are being transferred to their counterparts in foregin lands. Most likely West Georgia banks have arrangements for such transfers through larger banks in the city of Atlanta, but this does not reduce the importance of such activity. Elementary school teachers might consider taking their students to such offices in the same way they visit the city hall, the police station, and the fire house. Such encounters early in the socialization process would help expose the falseness of the local-international dichotomy.

Southwire, CBS Records, and various textile mills are examples of businesses that are either multinational in scope or are involved in the import-export business. An examination of their annual reports which are available to the public should clearly reveal their international linkages. Such an analysis would show what manufactured products are sold to other countries and what ingredients in these finished products come from abroad. In addition, one would find subsidiaries in other nations and foreign nationals employed in their home countries or in the corporate headquarters in this area. The vivid presentation of these data ought to impress upon students the importance their community has to the world system. Such corporations usually welcome visits by school and college groups. A talk with the head of international sales at the Southwire Company would be a positive learning experience.

The professional sector of the West Georgia communities also has linkages. It is possible local lawyers have clients who need advice about such matters as the licensing of patents and trademarks, anti-dumping laws and regulations, or immigration and naturalization laws. Inquiries directed to the local bar associations could produce such data.

A mail survey of the faculty at West Georgia College should reveal significant research being done abroad. In the last few years faculty have visited such places as India, Pakistan, Great Britain, Venezuela, Columbia, and Mexico. Such a survey should also include foreign students. Although the number of such students at the college is small, they do come

from a variety of different countries which adds some cosmopolitan flavor to the campus. West Georgia College can play a more active role in the community by having these faculty members and foreign students offer presentations to local schools and civic groups. Such presentations can show that the local communities in the West Georgia area have many similarities in terms of needs, desires, and hopes for the future with local communities in foreign lands.

The third and final sector of community life involves mass activities. This is an especially fruitful sector to explore because it includes citizens from all walks of life. A beginning point is the church. Throughout American history the church as not only served as a spiritual and moral guide but also as a community organization. A mail survey of local congregations would most certainly involve a large cross-section of the citizens of the West Georgia area. Many churches have been active in teaching about and collecting money for world hunger. Others have undertaken more specific projects such as aid to earthquake victims in Nicaragua and Guatemala. Still others have established missionary programs that link West Georgia to the global society.

Other mass activities include voluntary organizations that add so much to community life. The League of Women voters has traditionally maintained an active interest in world affairs. Other civic groups like the Rotary International have done likewise. Many communities have local volunteers that collect maney for UNICEF, Project HOPE and CARE. As with a visit to the telex in the local bank, a presentation by those groups to an elementary school class could go a long way to expose the arbitrary separation of the local and the international.

If such survey efforts are successful and the data are vividly presented in the international society-of-individuals perspective, they can promote local-global integration. Students in international studies programs can engage in such collection efforts and learn through their own participation. The proximity and concreteness of these personal and local linkages provide a means for understnding the world at large.[20] This approach can show individuals the saliency of their everyday lives and their international dimensions. All local communities are integrated into the world society. This system is faced with problems that are global in scope. Pollution, hunger, disease, inflation and the threat of nuclear holocaust do not respect national boundaries but easily cross these artifical lines to affect all individuals living in communities dotting the globe. The proposals set forth in this research-action project will help increase the competence of individuals to cope with the changing geographic scope of their lives.

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[20]Alger, *A World of Cities or Good Policies Begin At Home,* p. 15.

The theoretical orientation of this paper is normative. It is based on a very strong belief in participatory democracy. For too many years American citizens, normally very active in domestic politics, have deferred to the foreign policy "experts" in Washington. Such defernce may have been appropriate in the past but in the world today and most certainly the world in the future such behavior is very dangerous. The boundary between domestic and world affairs is becoming increasingly blurred and it is no longer possible to separate the role that individuals play in one arena from the other.[21] Many people see no alternative to this deference to the Washington "experts"; anything else is unthinkable. In an interdependent global society what this attitude really means is that democratic governance is unthinkable![22]

The proposals set forth in this paper can help people in the West Georgia area, through participatory learning exercises, develop a feeling of efficacy in world affairs that matches the feeling they have in the domestic realm. It is hoped such a project can promote greater public involvement in shaping foreign policy agendas. Foreign policies are developed by political, military and economic elites who delimit such basic terms as national interest and national security using their own definitions and interests.[23] The more we defer to these elites, the wider the latitude they have to control foreign policy decisions. Recent events have shown these decisions are not always consistent with the interests of the American people. As public concern about foreign policy agendas develops in local communities, the priorities of these politico-military elites will be questioned.[24] In an interdependent global society it is no longer possible to ignore our responsibility for foreign policies. It is our right and our obligation to be responsible citizens in the international realm just as it is in the domestic realm.

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[21]Chittick, "Individuals, Local Publics, and World Affairs," 3-4

[22]Alger, *A World of Cities or Good Foreign Policies Begin At Home,* p.21.

[23]*Ibid,.* p.16

[24]Alger," 'Foreign' Policies of U.S. Publics," 311.

REFLECTIONS ON IRAN'S ISLAMIC REPUBLIC AND THE ORIGINS OF PUBLIC AUTHORITY:

by Daniel Brantley*

I

The subtitle of the essay is "The Political Role of charismatic Nation-Building."[1] The author, for years, has been impressed by the fact that *extraordinary personalities* seemed to appear suddenly and set-up governments. For example, there was V.I. Lenin in Russia, Benito Mussolini in Italy, Adolf Hitler in Germany, Mao Tse-tung in China, Fiedel Castro in Cuba. And, there is also the Ayatollah Ruhollah Kromeini in Iran.[2]

To the author, these men are all charismatic; that is their power is (was) the ability to command the obedience of other men based on their extraordinary capacities and deeds. Such a leader's followers accept his authority because they have faith in his person. More simply, it is leadership resting upon the force of personality, in the process of conceiving revolution, planning and devising a "new" type of community. With these thoughts in mind, the author views the new Iranian constitution, which provides for an Islamic Republic, as another example of charismatic nation-making.

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[1]This essay is the communication of some thoughts the author has relative to two topics: the Ayatollah Khomeini's role in shaping the new Iranian government, and, a gap in the literature on political or public authority. The writer is in the process systematizing his notions about the two themes and when he has done so he plans to submit them for publication. Therefore this essay may be seen as a note on, or a preliminary statement regarding two of the author's research interests, which he is in the process of working on.

[2]Ayatollah Khomeini, the 79-year-old Iranian religious leader, came to power in February 1979, as a result of a revolution which combined nationalistic and religious elements. Khomeini is a Moslem of the Shiite sect, which is the majority religious group in Iran, while representing approximately 15% of Moslems world-wide. In Iran, the centers of political power include — Khomeini and the Revolutionary Council. The council consists of laymen as well as Islamic clergy (the majority). The Revolutionary Council is officially headed by Ayatollah Mohammed Beheshti, an Islamic clergyman. Khomeini himself gave power to the Council. That is, in the early days of the revolution Iran's Khomeini, then the unquestioned master of Iran's political affairs, told the Iranian people that he had decided to bring a group of laymen and shiite Muslim fundamentalists (clergymen) into a government which he was establishing on a provisional basis, until a new constitution could be drafted and voted on by the people. The Iranian people voted for an Islamic Republic in December, 1979. In recent months, the Iranian people have elected a president, Abdul Bani-Sadi. Iran will also have a new parliament which will be elected in April-May, 1980.

The Shah was toppled February, 1979, becuase of a revolution, which was led by a Shiite Muslim fundamentalist, Khomeini. Khomeini is an "ayatollah" (a clergyman of Shiite Islamic sect); he is also called an "imam" (or leader). To distinguish Khomeini from other religious leaders, the followers of Khomeini now call him "The Imam": the leader. In December, 1979, the Iranians voted for a new constitution, which created an Islamic Republic, making Iran the first country in history to have established an Islamic Republic. While it is impossible to say how in the future this "new" form of political community will operate, it is possible to comment on how the Iranian authorities are operating. At present, the government functions as a theocracy. That is, the clergy has effective political control over the country. Theocracy is, by definition, "A political system wherein the clergy exercises considerable political powers."[3]

On the one hand, theocracy is an old (perhaps the oldest) form of political system. Some examples are "Geneva, Switzerland (in the time of John Calvin), the nation of Tibet (in its pre-Communist period), and Massachusettes Bay Colonly (in precolonial times). . . "[4] On the other hand, there has never been a republican theocratic nation-state. Theocracies, like monarchies, were once plentiful, but there are only a few still in existence: there is, for example, Vatican City[5]. Iran's success or failure with a theocracy will be closely watched by the Muslim world-community, especially by those Muslim oil-rich feudal kingdoms, which border on Iran. If Iran can demonstrate that an Islamic Republic can be a viable political system, then one would expect to see through-out the Mid-East a number of revolutions inspired by nationalistic and religious elements. As we reflect, let us widen the frame of reference by trying to understand the power the Ayatollah Khomeini has over the Iranian people.

In trying to understand the Ayatollah Khomeini's power, the author has found it helpful to think of Khomeini's role as that of a *legitimatizing presence*,for instance like emperors of Japan, who will be discussed in the second part of the essay. If power is the ability to control others, a symbolic leader — a legitmatizing presence — has a share of it. He can, by virtue of his charismatic hold on the masses, appoint and dismiss officials of government, approve or disapprove governmental policies, and, in general, legitimate a group's actions (Iran's Revolutionary Council or the

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[3]Robert E. Murphy, *The Style and Study of Political Science* (Glenview, III.: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1970), p. 122.

[4]*Ibid.*

[5]According to one score, *The American Heritage Dictionary*, Vatican City is "A sovereign papal state, established in 1929, in an enclave of about 108 acres in the city of Rome, Italy." *The American Heritage Dictionary* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1978), s.v. "Vatican City," p. 1418. As a papal state, Vatican City qualifies as a theocracy.

group holding hostaged Americans in the Terheran embassy). Prior to the December, 1979, adoption of the Islamic constitution, Khomeini's power was extralegal, his followers adhering to his wishes in main because of his charisma. That is to say, originally his power was not derived from office-holding. The Iran situation has demonstrated the fact that a person may be "officized" to act but lack the authority to make his action stick. Authority per se is not power, but prestigious and influential individuals (such as Khomeini) may hold power that is real. Clearly this was what we were seeing on television screens when we saw the Iranian foreign minister make a policy statement, prior to clearing it with Khomeini, and, later "changing" his mind (in reality, Khomeini had ordered the foreign minister to return the original policy, which Khomeini had formulated). And finally, it is open to debate whether or not Khomeini (or any one person or group) is in control of events in Iran, but there is no doubt that Khomeini is the figure who legitimates all decisions: i.e., everything that is done, is done, in the name of the Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini.[6]

II

There is a gap in scholarship that this (the second part) of the essay addresses and proposes to fill — the lack of a critical and theoretical understanding of the role charisma plays in the founding of political authority. The gap will be presently highlighted by a brief examination of the myth of origins.

The myth of origins has been a typical form of both rationalizing, justifying, questioning, and condemning the established order, divine and human, ethical and political. Genealogies of regimes often include charismatic individuals. The theme of "divine ancestors" reveals nothing more clearly than this. That is why genealogies can serve as readily to destroy as to enhance claims to political supremacy. Professor Cutherson draws our attention to the dual nature of myth: myth has a capacity for and operates to either free people of oppressive political authority and leadership or enslave them to the established socio-political order. Cutherson explains, "Political myth is the mechanism of charisma, linking the hero to the community." He continues:

> Myth is a primary source for legitimizing and maintaining political power. The derivation of myth is the beginning of power politics. Myth custodians are powerholders. Myth establishes moral consensus in the

[6]An analogy may be made between Khomeini and Big Brother, a fictional character in George Orwell's novel, *1984*. In each case, a political system legitimates its actions on the basis of a political leader, who symbolizes a successful revolution, which toppled a hated system, and constructed in its place, a system which at its best is seen by its architects as a secular utopia, and, at its worst seen by the masses as offering little improvement, in a material way, over the previous system.

community and is accompanied by social sanctions. Myth stabilized the relationship of the individual to politics by restricting the purely organic state with the element of the moral purposiveness.[7]

There are five myth categories of doing what Dr. Cutherston has described. The five myth catergories, which are capable of revolutionary function, are specifically examined by Cutherson, namely, messianic, cultural, catastropic, community-forming (utopian), and iconoclastic myth. Of these myths, the community-forming or myth of origin of regimes will be the focus of this study.

Political theorists have noted that inquiries into the beginnings of regimes may lead to a god or hero who engendered a royal house. Such diverse thinkers as Thomas Hobbes and Edmound Burke entirely shared Immanuel Kant's opinion that "The origin of the supreme authority is. . .not open to scrutiny by the people who are subject to it. . ." Kant says "that. . .the subjects should not be overly curious about its (the state's) origins as though the right of obedience due it were open to doubt. . .these are pointless questions that threaten the state with danger if they are asked with too much sophistication."[8] In short, curiosity about the origins of public authority, as with all history, is inevitably dangerous. As Dr. Cutherston observed, "The deprivation of myth is the beginning of power politics." Sophisticated critical appreciation and theoretical understanding of the mythical basis of public authority on the part of the citizenry is dangerous to the state or myth custodians. Hobbes too recognized the destructive possibilities of the search for origins. It was his belief that "there is scarcely a commonwealth in the world, whose beginnings can in conscience be justified," and that curiosity about the origins of political authority and leadership is the "most effectual sees of death to any state."[9]

The main use of the community-forming (uptopian) myth in the modern era has been polemical.[10] One may well ask whether it has been effective. It has been and still is. As people derive their sense of their own

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[7]Giberston Cutherson, *Political Myth and Epic* (East Lansing: Michigan State University Press, 1975), p. 156.

[8]Immanuel Kant, *The Metaphysical Elements of Justice,* trans. John Ladd k(Indianapolis: bobbs-Merriell, 1965), p. 84.

[9]Thomas Hobbes, *Leviathan,* editor Michael Oakeshott (Oxford: Blackwell, 1946), p. 463. For Edmound Burke's view, see "A Vindication of Nature Society," in *Works* (Boston: Little Brown, 1869), I. 9-10.

[10]Even with its traditional religious foundations destroyed, the myth of the perfect community continues to reappear in new forms. It may be argued that belief in "perfect order" then is a universal phenomenon, because all people seem to wish to make the world perfect or to move to a perfect world when they die. Politically, the theme of the "world to come" is exemplified in, for example, the third state of Auguste Comte and communism as the highest state of human development of Karl Marx.

worth to some degree from that of their families, the same is true of regimes. Therefore, states are vulnerable to attacks on their pedigrees, whether moral or social. By analogy, the origins of institutions, national character, and political authority will also remain sensitive to such scrutiny. Tracing a man's character to its psychic roots or a social institution to its founders may either effectively support or undermine (destroy) its claim to honor.

To appreciate the importance of "divine ancestors" to secure sanction for a polity, one has only to consider the role of the imperial family in Japan's history as Professor H. Carroll Parish did. Since the beginning of Japanese history the myth of the emperor as a link with the divine ancestors of the nation has served as a constitution.[11] In an article, "The Role of the Imperial Family in Modern Japan," Dr. Parish argues that "The emperor was the intermediary between the divine imperial ancestors and the people."[12] All "virtue", Parish notes, is derived from the imperial family. Moreover, he says:

> Traditionally, the emperor represented the continuity of the nation and the repository of "virtue" which he developed as a result of his studies of Confucian classics, Chinese literature, and Chinese and Japanese history. . .When earthquake, fire, and pestlience struck repeatedly during a certain reign, it was believed often that such tragedies were due to a lack of virtue on the part of the sovereign.[13]

Clearly the traditional emperor was a charistmatic figure. Japanese emperors were — in Japanese political theory — all related to the gods. Only their morality make them different from the divine ancestors. An emperor, as befitted his unique position, remained aloof from the political struggle that embroiled the actual rulers of Japan whose regime the imperial institution legitimized. The emperor was the political progenitor of civil order (or government) among his people. It was a political order that was based on his omnipotence and omniscience. The emperor's traditional role as a link between the people and the gods is illustrative of Kant's and Hobbes' assertions.

We might quite aptly compare the Japanese imperial institution — the central figures in this system are the imperial family members — with

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[11]Emperors deified by the Japanese were not fabled figures, or merely beings of myth; they were moral. It is difficult for us to imagine this deificiation of people who really lived; to do so we must think in terms of the canonization of our own saints. Politically, the United States put an end to emperor worship, with a Japanese (American imposed) constitution. As a result of the American "democracization" of Japan, following the Second World War, a new constitution was adopted (in January 1946) that rejected the "godhood" of the emperor.

[12]H.C. Parish, "The Role of the Imperial Family in Modern Japan," *Social Science,* 49, p. 75.

[13]*Ibid.*

Machiavelli's prince. A Machiavellian prince, Romulus, for example, is also the founder of a civil society, Rome.[14] Such a leader too establishes a secure political order and ensures his own power. His justification for creating a polity is found in his special status (as a demigod) and his success in the political arena. Specifically of Romulus, it may be observed that the basis of the community be founded in his political success. There is an important similarity in the two portraits. Going to the foundations of both Japan and Rome, we find charismatic authority and leadership. While Romulus represents an example of a Machiavellian ruler, not all Machiavellian rulers (possibly not a majority) are charismatic. Because Machiavelli most surely had a vision of political greatness that involved no more than success acquired by all and any means, a Machiavellian leader may or may not also be a charismatic one.[15]

Japan and Italy are political systems in existence today. In marked contrast to existent regimes, there is a body of literature, which is the product of religious teachers, social philosphers, and visionaries, on the origins and existence of communities which have never existed. The generic name given such social orders is utopia, which is an English work derived from a Greek noun for "no place".

Commentators have written on the theme of perfect communities or utopias (also called paradises). An interesting as well as a revealing way to examine the creative aspect of charismatic leadership — the charismatic leader as a founder of a community — would be to study it as a theme in religious and political literature, isolating fantasies about "another world" as they found expression in sacred books (for examples the old and new

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[14] *Tradition says Rome was founded by Romulus in 753 B.C. Tradition also tells of how the early people of Rome worshiped Romulus as Quirinus. In Roman legend, Romulus and his twin, Remus, were sons of the god Mars and Rhea Silvia, a princess. The two brothers (demigods) jointly founded the settlement, which later became Rome (named after Romulus). Remus was slain by Romulus, whose reign lasted many years. But to assure the survival of his new city Romulus made war on neighboring peoples, among them the Sabines, whose women he caught in order to provide wives for his settlers. Furthermore, to stabilize his polity he established a constitution. His end was no less miraculous than his beginning (viz., being fathered by a god); he vanished in a thunderstorm and thereafter was worshiped as Quirinus.*

[15] *A brief statement is in order regarding Romulus' status as a Machiavellian prince. Niccolo Machiavellian in the Discourses* uses Romulus as an example of a ruler (probably a fabled figure) who knew how to obtain and keep political power, and therefore, a model for those who wish to study the methods by which power is obtained and kept. Thus, this essay's identification of Romulus as a Machiavellian ruler.

Testaments and the Koran) and in commentaries upon them, and in secular adaptation.[16] In the West (Euro-America), the myth of paradise (a place of perfect order) has given sustenance to such great enterprises as the propagation of Christianity, the Crusades against Islam, millenarian revolts during the Reformation, the overseas explorations of the sixteenth century, and the settlement of the American continent. Western man has seen (it may be argued) paradise in terrestrial and celestial terms, and in his visions of paradise he has disclosed his innermost *desires*, whether he thrust their background into the past, projected them forward into the future on earth, or raised them to the heavens. As expressed in this literature, these "wishes" include the "garden eastward in Eden" of Genesis, the "golden race" of Hesiod, the "philosopher-king" of Plato, the "world to come" of Christ, the "city of the living God" of the Spistle of the Hebrews, the "vision of man in a primitive state of nature" of Rousseau's *Discourse on Inequality*, and "communism" of Marx's and Engels' works.

In the beginning paradise was a myth — of the community-forming type — with all the ambiguities of myth. But later it became a religious belief in Israel and eventually a theological doctrine in Judasism, Christianity, and Islam. However, in popular usage paradise is a "golden age" which has established itself as a separate entity. Utopia is the generic name given to it in secular literature. In this literature there is, it should be stressed, no one charismatic type founder of the perfect community, but a spectrum from the hero to the wonder-working man to the son of God. At intervals groups are seized with a desire to create an "ideal" social order once and for all inspired by Messiahs, prophets, heroic leaders, the world-historical personalities, who promised a heavenly kingdom on earth after an apocalyptic combat with the incarnation of evil.

In conclusion, we need not look any further than the front page of the newspaper or the television screen to find an example of the interplay of charisma and the founding of a new political system. The example referred to is Iran's new Islamic constitution and the part played by the Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini in its establishment. In December, 1979, the Iranian people, inspired by the religious leader Ayatollah Khomeini, voted to transform the country into an Islamic Republic. The new constitution gives Ayatollah Khomeini an official role in the political process, and, under it,he will remain for life in effective political control over the political affairs of the new Republic.

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[16]A detailed discussion of this literature is beyond the scope of the present essay. The purpose of this section of the discussion is simply to suggest the existence of a relationship between charisma and utopian literature. For the readers who would like to read about the writer's views on this topic, see the writer's doctoral dissertation, submitted to Howard University, Department of Political Science, 1979.

ARE WE HERE FOR A FAIR EXCHANGE? A REVIEW AND CRITIQUE OF GEORGE HOMANS' EXCHANGE THEORY

by Lee-jan Jan*

I

The Theory

George Homans is one of the most prominant contemporary social psychologists. His greatest theoretical contribution is in the exchange perspective. Homans, originally a structural functionalist as evidenced in his book *The Human Group*, 1950, grew dissatisfied with the Parsonian conceptual framework and wanted to provide an alternative strategy for theory building. This strategy, based on elementary economics and behavioral psychology, was presented in his book *Social Behavior: Its Elementary Forms* (1961, rvised 1974).

George Homans' exchange theory, according to him, is mainly an attempt to explain what he called "elementary social behavior", and then the use of elementary social behavior to explain social behavior in general. By elementary social behavior, Homans means that 1) the behavior is ordinary and everyday behavior; 2)it is social (two persons interact with each other in a face to face contact, the activity one person emits must be rewarded or punished by the other person immediately and directly); 3) it is actual behavior, not how the person and the other ought to behave; 4) the interactions are spontaneous, not under some kind of contract or one has authority over the other; and 5) it is elementary, shared by all mankind and is not any institutionalized behavior. Put in Homans' own terms, elementary social behavior is mainly "an exchange of activity, tangible or intangible, and more or less rewarding or costly, between at least two persons."[1]

The setting for the study of elementary social behavior is the small group. As Homans indicates that elementary social behavior is the face-to face contact between individuals, in which the reward each gets from the behavior of the others is relatively direct and immediate, then the study needs close observation. It is difficult to observe a large number of persons at one time, and therefore one can only study it in small groups, and make inferences according to observation.

The underlying general propositions of the exchange theory used to explain the elementary social behavior are behavioral psychology and

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[1]*George C. Homans, Social Behavior: Its Elementary Forms* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1961), 13.

elementary economics. Since behavioral psychology is a set of propositions derived from experimental studies of animals, usually in nonsocial situtations, and elementary economics is a set of propositions describing the behavior of men in exchanging material goods, they do not automatically explain the human social behavior which includes exchange of intangible services. Therefore, Homans stretched these two sets of propositions and meshed them together to form a set of propositions to explain elementary social behavior as an exchange activity between persons.[2]

The propositions are:

. If in the past the occurrence of a particular stimulus situation has been he occasion on which a man's activity has been rewarded, then the more imilar the present stimulus situation is to the past one, the more likely he is o emit the activity, or some similar activity, now.

. The more often within a given period of time a man's activity rewards the ctivity of another, the more often the other will emit the activity.

. The more vaulable to a man a unit of the activity another gives him, the nore often he will emit activity rewarded by the activity of the other.

. The more often a man has in the recent past received a rewarding activity rom another, the less valuable any further unit of that activity becomes to im.

. The more to a man's disadvantage the rule of distributive justice fails of ealization, the more likely he is to display the emotional behavior we call nger.

The main points of this theory and its underlying concepts can be ummarized as follows: it begins with behavioral psychology and lementary economics which assume that men are hedonistic and profit-eeking; therefore in social contact the more a man is rewarded for an ctivity he emits, the more likely he will emit that activity. When two persons interact with each other, they will emit the kind of activity which vill get them the activity valuable to them from the other person. The more hey value each other's activity, the more they will interact. The more persons interact with one another the more they like one another. When persons interact with one another they expect that the rule of distributive ustice be realized; that means each of them expects to get a profit from the nteraction. The profit should be proportional according to their nvestments and the cost they spent on it, profit defined by Homans as eward less cost. Cost occurs when there is an alternative activity which vill also gain reward for the person.

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[2] *Ibid., 12-13.*

If the rule of distributive justice is not realized, the person shows the emotional behavior of anger. If the persons's activity is not rewarded by others he will emit less and less of that activity. If two persons find interaction with each other is not rewarding they will not continue to interact with each other. Another condition when two persons will decrease their exchange of activities when they feel satiated during the exchange of activities. According to Homans this is just like the rule of marginal utility: the value of each unit of activity decreases per unit of exchange.

When explaining behavior in a group, Homans evaluates social approval as a very important reward one gets from his group. Individuals conform to the norm of their group mainly to get social approval. If the individual values more the approval of a nonconformer of the group, the less he will conform. The more a person conforms to the norms of his group the more he will be rewarded by approval, thus the higher esteem he will receive. But a person receives high esteem not only because he conforms but also because he is able to provide more valuable and scarce rewards to others. The ability to provide scarce and valuable activity to other members in the group will lead to more interaction directed to those with high esteem. The people who value the other's activity are more likely to originate the interaction, since the people with low esteem are apt to value the activity of the people with high esteem. This explains why the interaction is more likely to flow from the low esteem people to the high esteem people, and the high esteem people return them with valuable services.

The people who control scarce and valuable services gain authority over the rest of the members by rewarding or punishing them. The members follow or obey the high esteem people's advice or suggestions in expectation of gaining reward or avoiding punishment. Homans defines authority as an earned influence by a person over the other members in a wide range of activities. This authority bestows leadership on the person. (Homans does not talk about authority acquired by appointment or inheritance.) The leaders are few in number and tend to be loners. Although we know the leaders are paid high esteem and more interaction is directed to them, Homans also pointed out that the follows also feel deprived by them, and the psychic cost of feeling inferior will create ambivalence in the relationship between leaders and followers. Thus, people tend to interact with their equals. The leaders may gain liking in the first place, but lose it after they have established their leadership. What they retain may be high esteem and respect.

From this breif summary we can see behavioral psychology and elementary economics as a strain running through the explanation, as Homans attempted to explain social behavior in its elementary form,

namely exchange behavior. Homans begins with explaining interaction between individuals, later expanding to explain interaction in a group and the emergence of authority and leaders. The leaders rise to their place with a lot of liking but unfortunately end in a unavoidably lonely place with a lot of cold respect.

II

The Criticisms

Kenneth E. Boulding thinks that the theory only explains the interaction of persons at levels below that of strictly formal organization, and in dealing with valued activities and reward did not explain how the preference structures are learned.[3] It is hard to agree with these criticisms because Homans has explicitly indicated that the exchange theory was not intended to explain formal organizational behavior, and that he has taken many things as given, such as how the preference structure is learned, as beyond the theory's scope.

Boulding further criticizes that the exchange system is not the only system in human interaction; there are other systems such as threat system, love system.[4] Although it can be argued that people interacting by threat of love are also practicing exchange behavior (such as to emit a certain behavior under threat to avoid a punishment, or the mother who gives her love to her children in hope of maintaining her children's love or attachment to her in return), these activities are better explained by threat and love than exchange, because human beings are motivated to act or interact by some other factors than profit-seeking. Love can be a motivation itself; it does not need to have anything in return, such as mother sacrificing herself to protect her children in an emergency. At that moment she does not do it for a reward; she does it intuitively, purely motivated by love. It would be illogical to explain it by profit-seeking because she may kill herself in the process; if this is the cost, it would be very hard to find any reward to exceed it and leave some profit.

James A. Davis thinks that the exchange theory is a nonmathematical reasoning; therefore it is not precise enough to determine the relationship between cause and result, and he doubts that anyone except Homans could draw these particular conclusions for his theory.[5] Although some of the

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[3]*Kenneth E. Boulding, "Two Critiques of Homans' Socail Behavior: Its Elementary Forms,* An Economists's View." *American Journal of Sociology* (67: January 1962), 458-460).

[4]*Ibid.,* 460.

[5]James A. Davis, "Two Critiques of Homans' *Social Behavior: Its Elementary Forms,* A Socialogist's View," *AmericanJournal of Sociology (67: January 1962), 454-458.*

concepts such as value, profit, and distributive justice would be better if they could be reasoned with a mathematical model, it is not the only legitimate way of explaining the action; in human behavior there are many aspects which nedd not and/or cannot be explained by mathematical reasoning, such as we mentioned before, people interact because of love.

Deutsch and Krauss think that the key terms in this theory are neither conceptually nor operationally defined, such as unit of activity, value, or reward. They can be understood in a sense of everyday language, but it is very hard to test them and interpret them in a strictly scientific method.[6]

Deutsch and Krauss further indicate that the Homans' theory implies that there is a common currency or a single dimension to which the value of different experiences can be coordinated so that the value of a unit of one such activity received can be compared with the value of another unit. But this common currency and the method of unitizing activity have not been identified. That is to say without some conceptual and empirical definition of reinforcement, Homans is in the position of defining a value as that which is valued, paralleling the Skinnerian circularity of a reinforcer as that which reinforces.[7] This is valid criticism because from the definition of value summarized in the first part of this paper it can be seen that although Homans tried to define and tell us how to measure value and quantity independently, the measurement is still a vague idea and cannot be operationalized.

Deutsch and Krauss further criticized that the lack of specification of a common currency for the measurement of value creates serious problems for such notions as profit, reward, cost, distributive justice, because these notions imply an ability to compare, to add and substract, and to divide value. Since value is not measurable then how can one determine how valuable a reward or cost is? If one cannot determine the value of reward or cost then how can one determine how great the profit is? If one cannot determine the value of the profit, then how can one determine whether the interaction is a fair exchange? How can one apply the rule of distributive justice?

Another important defect Deutsch and Krauss pointed out is that the exchange theory ignores psychological processes both as inner conflict and ambivalence because it takes strictly the economic assumption that values are additive — for example, the formula Profit - Reward - Cost. But besides the fact that one has no way to substract the cost from reward objectively, to add a negative value or cost to a positive value or reward the result is just not simply the smaller positiv value. Rather the person experiences conflict and manifests symptons of stress.

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[6] *Morton Deutsch and Robert M. Krauss, Theories in Social Behavior* (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1965), 112.

[7] Ibid., 115.

Besides the criticisms cited above, there are still some other questions: 1. Whether psychic profit is actually measurable objectively according to the formula Profit - Reward - Cost. For example, If person A gives person C help, it is because he thinks that the approval he gains is more valued than the cost he expands to give C help. But suppose one has studied person B's history and his recent activities and they are all equal to person A's. However, person B would not give help to person C, according to the formula, because person B does not value the approval reward more than the cost he needs to spend to help person C. Since everything is equal, the reason one can attribute to this is that they are of different personalities; maybe person A is a nice guy. Then how can one calculate the personality difference into the formula? As another example, say person A would give help at one time but not at another time, and other things being equal, besides the difference that when person A gave help he was in a good mood, he does not give help when he is in a bad mood (not satiation). Then the reason one can attribute is to emotion, and how is one going to take account of emotion in that formula?

It has been documented in many studies that a person's emotion or mood has a great influence on his interaction with another person, especially in helping behavior.[8] Here, Homans' theory suffers, as behavioristic reinforcement theory in general cannot explain altruistic behavior. Such behavior usually involves a high cost to the person who emits such an activity, but who expects nothing in return; for example, a good samaritan.

2. The assumption of profit-seeking as the origination of the establishment of human interaction is questionable. According to the theory, when people are thrown together before common norms have been crystallized among them, the advantage to be gained through entering into exchange relations furnishes incentives for social interaction. The exchange process serves as a mechanism for regulating social interaction, thus fostering the development of a network of social relations and rudimentary group structure. Therefore the elementary social behavior supplies the process of institutional behavior. Institutional behavior differs only because the rewards are complex and the exchange indirect, so that the process must be mediated through explicitly stated norms. The norms continue to operate only so long as they are supported by the workings of elementary behavior. Here the question is how people know that entering into interaction will gain profit in the first place. If they just blindly hit on it and are rewarded, then the first activity cannot be assumed as profit seeking motivated to enter into interaction after norms, regulations, and expectations have been established. Then their behavior

[8]Lawrence S. Wrightsman, *Social Psychology* (Monterey, California: Brooks/Cole Co., 1977), 296-297).

may be assumed or interpreted as economically rational, because as this time when a person emits an activity he has the norms or regulations to follow and knows what to expect from it.

Levi-Strauss had argued strongly that unlike animals, humans possess a cultural heritage of norms and values; not only is exchange behavior guided by learned and regulations, it is also more than the results of economic or psychological needs, even those needs that have been acquired through socialization. Exchange cannot be understood solely on terms of individual motives, because exchange relations are a reflection of patterns of social organization which exist as an entity, sui generis, to the psychological dispositions of individuals.[9]

3. Since exchange behavior is mostly a learned behavior, and culturally bound or biased, therefore it cannot be adequately generalized to a global scope before it has been examined in other cultures. Homans indicated himself that he thinks this exchange theory is universal but he based his observations mainly on American experiments, thus making people question the validity of these generalizations.

It is reasonable to criticize that Homans did not take social structure into consideration in formulating his exchange theory, and based it solely on the assumption of economically rational men. But it would be incorrect to accuse Homean, as Poloma did, of psychological reductionism and that psychological reductionism could render sociology obsolete.[10] It is up to those sociologists who oppose psychological reductionism to demonstrate the worth of sociology.

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[9]Johathan H. Turner, *The Structure of Sociological Theory* (Homewood, Illinois: The Dorsey Press, 1978), 210.

[10]Margaret M. Poloma, *Contemporary Sociological Theory* (New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1979), 45-46.

ABSTRACTS OF MASTER'S THESES AND SPECIALIST IN EDUCATION PROJECTS

Albrecht, Mary Ann, (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE EFFECT OF A STRUCTURAL-PHONETIC ANALYSIS APPROACH UPON WORD RECOGNITION

This research study was designed to compare the achievement of students who were taught word recognition skills by the structuralphonetic analysis approach with students who were taught word recognition skills by the regular phonic approach.

Word recognition skills were taught during three ten minute periods each week over a four month period by a teacher and two instructional aides to two groups of eighteen students. These skills were presented to the students individually or in small groups. The experimental group was taught using a structural-phonetic analysis approach, and the control group was taught using the regular phonic approach.

Subjects in these groups were randomly selected from the students assigned to the Title I language arts class at LaBelle Elementary School. They were in their fourth, fifth, or sixth year of school.

Data were collected from the Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty, Word Recognition and Word Analysis Test. These data were analyzed through the use of the t test to determine significance. The null hypothesis was not rejected because there was no significant difference at the .05 level.

It was concluded that there was no significant difference in achievement in word recognition skills between the experimental group and the control group which can be attributed to the two methods of teaching word recognition skills.

Atkins, Kathy, (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

A STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF THE EARLY CHILDHOOD GRADUATE EDUCATION PROGRAM AT WEST GEORGIA COLLEGE ON GRADUATES AFTER RE-ENTERING THE TEACHING PROFESSION

This study is aimed at determining the effects of the early childhood graduate education at West Georgia College on one hundred and seventy-seven graduates from January, 1976 to March, 1979, who have earned a masters degree and have returned to teaching. A questionnaire developed by the early childhood education department was filled out by the graduate teachers and by their immediate supervisors. The positive results are

shown in the raw scores, percentages, mean scores, and the correlation between the matched pairs of teachers and supervisors. These results of the questionnaires show that the teacher graduates exhibit positive skills, characteristics, and behaviors. The study concludes that the early childhood fifth-year education program at West Georgia College has positive effects upon teacher graduates.

Autry, Barbara Gail, (MA, June, 1979)

EXECUTIVE WOMEN: THEIR SUCCESS AND CONFLICTS

This article deals with problems and conflicts faced by women in management or executive positions. Historical developments are included to provide the reader with a transistion from the past societal standards to the current market of the executive female. Research is provided on age, educational training, experience and marital status of interviewed subjects with emphasis on salary ranges and conflicts of executive females. Findings indicate, of those in executive positions, 44% of the females have some college education, 64% of the males have bachelors degrees. Females were found to have greater work experience than their male counterparts, 66% of the males had between five and 10 years of experience, 39% of the females had more than 20 years experience before attaining management positions. Fifty-five percent of the females surveyed were earning from $15,000 to $20,000; of the majority of the males, 66%, had earnings in excess of $40,000.

Battle, Joan Barnwell, (Specialist in Education, March, 1979)

SUSPENSIONS: A HUMANISTIC APPROACH

In January, 1978, a study was conducted to compare the inschool suspension system with the traditional method of out-of-school suspension to see if they differ significally at the .05 level. This would enable school administrators to modify the behavior of students within the school setting, yet, maintain state aid based on the average daily attendance.

The subjects for this study were selected at random and assigned either to a control or an experimental group, each containing twenty students.

The experimental group reflected a greater reduction in the number of suspensions than the control group, the difference being significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

It is recommended that similar studies be conducted to assess the effect of in-school suspension (1) on academic achievement and (2) on other criterion variables such as interest, motivation, and attitudes.

Bookhardt, Jesse, (Specialist in Education, August, 1979)

PEER AND ADULT INFLUENCE ON SELECTED BELIEFS OF SIXTH AND EIGHTH GRADERS

The point of this study was to determine the extent of peer influence and parent influence on the beliefs of sixth and eighth graders from a suburban middle class Cobb County, Georgia sample.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant differences between sex or grade level relative to parent and peer influences. To test the null hypotheses, 60 eighth grade subjects, and 60 sixth grade subjects equally divided between sexes respectively were chosen. A modified version of The Students Belief Opinionnaire was given as a pre-test. Indicating their agreement or disagreement with stated opinions, the subjects responded to the instrument on a seven point Likert scale.

Four weeks later the same instrument was given as a post-test and included a Likert scale that had been treated with a written persuasive communication indicating parent and peer agreement or disagreement with items. The difference between subject responses on the pre-test and post-test was calculated. These changes of opinions relative to peers and parents formed the foundation of the statistical treatment and conclusions.

A t-test, an analysis of variance, and a Duncan procedure were applied to the change of opinion scores of each sub-group. The findings revealed that relative to selected opinion formation, eighth grade females were significantly more peer directed than eighth grade males, and were significantly more peer oriented than parent oriented. All other sub-groups of sex and grade levels were not found to be significantly different relative to parent or peer influence. All sub-groups as a whole were found to be attracted by both peer and parent indicated opinions.

Therefore, based on the findings the most outstanding conclusions of the study had to do with the strong peer orientation of eighth grade female subjects and the finding that both parent and peer opinions attracted rather than repelled subject responses.

It was recommended that similar studies be done to determine the status of peer and parent influences at the seventh grade level; to determine whether the subjects were atypical; to include a wider range of variables; and to narrow the type of opinions involved to a single kind.

Brewer, Lawton Andrew, (MA, June, 1979)

AN EXPLICATION AND A CONSIDERATION OF THE CRITICISM OF "THE CITY OF DREADFUL NIGHT"

After giving a brief review of representative critical evaluations of "The City of Dreadful Night," this paper attempts to deal with the major themes, symbols and images of the poem. Most of the initial discussion involves the poet's attitude toward religion and his treatment of the topic as revealed in the symbolism and situations of the work. In addition, the paper traces the nihilistic philosophy of the work in some of its major sections. A significant amount of space is devoted to an explication of the reality-illusion motif and its relationship to the poem's religious pessimisma. Penultimately, other major symbolic devices, especially those of the City and the river, receive some attention. Finally, the paper gives some consideration to the poem's relationship to other literary work: the paper suggests possible influences exerted upon the poem and points out the affinities between "The City of Dreadful Night" and modern literature.

Cagle, Sara E., (Specialist in Education, August, 1979)

A COMPARISON OF BEHAVIORISTIC AND HUMANISTIC STRATEGIES UTILIZED IN TEACHING SIXTY SELECTED DOLCH SIGHT WORDS TO SECOND GRADE TITLE I READING STUDENTS

This study was designed to determine if children would learn sight words significantly better if they were taught utilizing behavioristic strategies or by utilizing humanistic strategies.

The subjects were forty Title I reading students from Douglas County, Georgia. These students were randomly assigned to two experimental groups. Thirty-six of the subjects studied sixty eight words from the Dolch List that they were unable to recognize instantly. Since they recognized too many words on the prestest, four of the subjects participated using shorter word lists and were, therefore, not included in the analyses.

Experimental group A taught sight words utilizing behavioristic strategies. Experimental group B was taught sight words utilizing

humanistic strategies. Both groups studied their word lists approximately fifteen minutes each school day for six weeks.

The findings of this study suggested that there was significant difference in sight word recognition achievement scores when comparing a group taught utilizing behavioristic strategies with a group taught utilizing humanistic strategies. In the group taught humanistically, the same results were found when the groups were compared by sex.

Click, Joy C. (Specialist in Ecuation, August, 1979)

THE STUDY OF STUDENT EVALUATIONS of THE EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION GRADUATE PROGRAM AT WEST GEORGIA COLLEGE FROM AUGUST, 1977 THROUGH AUGUST, 1979

The purpose of this study was to formally tabulate and assess all the student evaluations of the Early Childhood Education Graduate Program at West Georgia College from August, 1977 through August, 1979.

One hundred fifty-three questionnaire responses were tabulated. The results indicate that the students had positive attitudes towards the Early Ehildhood Education Graduate Program at West Georgia College.

Cooke, Wyvis M., (Specialist in Education, August, 1979)

IS IN-SCHOOL SUSPENSION A WORTH-WHILE INNOVATION AT CARROLLTON HIGH SCHOOL?

This study was an attempt to determine if in-school suspenison is a worth-while innovation at Carrollton High School.

Several conclusions were drawn from this limited study as a result of the date collected:

1. Overall suspensions have decreased at Carrollton High School during the last three years, even though student enrollment has been on the increase.

2. Students assigned to in-school suspension have decreased since its inauguration.

3. Repeaters to in-school suspension have decreased substantially at Carrollton High School.

4. There has been a significant reduction in student drop-outs.

5. Eighty-three percent of the students surveyed would choose in-school suspension rather than suspension.

6. Sixty-one percent of the students surveyed felt that in-school suspension should be continued at Carrollton High School.

7. Fifty-seven percent of the students surveyed thought that in-school suspension was an effective punishment.

8. Seventy-eight percent of the students surveyed felt that in-school suspension was similar to being in jail.

9. The in-school suspension classroom should be totally nonpunitive and should be staffed by a person who is an expert in guidance.

Cooper, Dale F., (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

THE EFFECT ON ACHIEVEMENT AND ATTITUDE OF THE LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE APPROACH TO TEACHING MATHEMATICS STORY PROBLEMS TO FOURTH GRADE STUDENTS

This study was designed to determine the effect, if any, the language experience approach to teaching mathematics story problems would have on achievement and attitude.

Subjects used in this study were two heterogeneous groups of fourth-grade children in Polk County, Georgia. During the six-week instructional period, the experimental group was taught mathematics word problem solving skills using the language experience approach, while the control group was taught mathematics word problem solving skills using the traditional method receiving no specialized instruction. Each treatment period for the experimental group was 45 minutes, three days each week. Subjects completing the experiment numbered twenty in the control group and nineteen in the experimental group giving a total of thirty-nine participants completing the experiment.

The Iowa Tests of Basic Skills, Level 10, Form 5 was used for the pretest and Form 6 was used for the posttest for mathematics achievement. The Dutton Scale (Straight's modification) was used for the pretest and posttest for mathematics attitude. The testing for the experimental group was administered by the investigator, while the testing for the control group was administered by the control group teacher.

The Analysis of Covariance was used to analyze the data. The null hypotheses were tested using the .05 level of significance. The significance of the F ratio in mathematics achievement indicated no significant of the F ratio in mathematics attitude did indicate a significant difference. Therefore, the first null hypothesis concerning mathematics achievement, was not rejected at the .05 level of significance. The second null hypothesis concerning mathematics attitude, however, was rejected at the .05 level of significance, with the experimental group having a higher mean.

Davies, Pamela G., (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

A COMPARISON STUDY OF FIRST YEAR STUDENTS INSTRUCTED IN AN INTENSIVE PHONICS PROGRAM AS COMPARED TO FIRST YEAR STUDENTS INSTRUCTED IN A BASAL READER AND GRADUAL PHONICS PROGRAM

This study was designed to compare results of reading achievement of first year students using an intensive phonics program with first year students using a basal reading series and occasional phonics program. The subjects were students at Hollydale Elementary School and Austell Elementary School. The subjects were matched socio-economically in two groups of forty-four students. The length of the study was eight months.

Four subtests of the Stanford Achievement Test, Primary Battery I were used. These subtests, word reading, paragraph meaning, vocabulary and word study skills, along with the total raw scores, were covaried with the Metropolitan Readiness Test, parental occupation and kindergarten. The analysis of the covariance was used as the statistical analysis.

The results showed only one significant area of difference. This difference was indicated at the .009 level of confidence in the analysis of the data. The difference was found to favor the control group in the area of vocabulary.

Davis, Mary Jack, (MA, March, 1979)

THE AUTONOMOUS EXPRESSION OF BEING: THE POETRY OF HOPKINS, STEIN, YEATS, WILLIAMS AND STEVENS

The poems of Gerard Manley Hopkins, W.B. Yeats, Gertrude Stein, William Carlos Williams, and Wallace Stevens have been the subject of varied and often contradictory interpretations. Their poems have in

common unusual linguistic structures which often make their poetic meanings ambiguous and complex. Many times a poem's meaning will seem to be nothing more than the linguistic structure itself. However, each poet has an affinity with a philosophy of being, and this affinity is reflected in his poetry. This thesis attempts to demonstrate that through a blending of two polar theories, contextualism and romanticism, a common poetic purpose does emerge from the poems of Hopkins, Yeats, Stein, Williams, and Stevens.

In romantic theory the concept that poetic meaning is identified with the imagination's power to coalesce with the essence of nature provides the basis for interpreting the poems in light of a theory of continuity. However, unlike the Romantic who stood in a position of preestablished harmony between spirit and nature, Hopkins, Stein, Yeats, Stevens, and Williams felt that they were in a position of dissonance with nature. They had to search for that harmony which the romantics took for granted. The language itself was the poet's greatest barrier to the experience of continuity. In contextual theory the poem only exists in language, and poetic meaning is identified with the system of linguistic relations in the poem. Contextual thinking provides the basis for examining the linguistic relations and identifing those relations with the imagination's power to blend spirit with nature.

Dollar, Sue F., (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

THE EFFECT OF THE FUNCTIONAL USE OF DIRECTED READING TECHNIQUE ON SPECIALIZED VOCABULARY IN SEVENTH GRADE SOCIAL STUDIES

A study was conducted to compare the achievement of two groups in specialized social studies vocabulary. Group One was taught social studies by the teacher's traditional teaching method. Group Two was taught social studies vocabulary by the directed reading technique.

The classes in Group One and Two were heterogeneously grouped. They were considered equivalent because assignment to classes was a random process. Two teachers were involved in this study. The researcher was one of the teachers involved.

A sixty item vocabulary test was administered as a pretest and posttest equivalent group design in the study. A one-way analysis of covarieance was used in the data analysis with the pretest as a covariate. The results of

the comparison revealed that following the directed reading technique as applied to specialized vocabulary in seventh grade social studies was more effective than following the method of traditional teaching.

Edwards, Mary B., (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

A COMPARISON STUDY OF SELF-CONCEPTS OF STUDENTS IN A JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT WITH SELF-CONCEPTS OF STUDENTS IN A SELF-CONTAINED ENVIRONMENT

This study was designed to compare the self-concepts of students in a junior high school environment with the self-concepts of students in a self-contained school environment. The variables of grade level, sex, and school were analyzed as to their main and interactive effects of self-concept. Seventh and eight-grade students from two schools were the subjects.

A two-way Analysis of Covariance was the statistical technique employed. Socio-economic status was the covariate. Program ANOVA and Program Breakdown from the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences were used. The results showed that the main effects of grade level, sex, and school were not significant at the .05 level. The intereactions of grade level with school, and the interaction of sex with school were also not significant at the .05 level. However, the interaction of grade level with sex was significant at the .05 level.

Gadd, Linda Patterson, (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

A STUDY OF THE TRADITIONAL APPROACH VERSUS A MANIPULATIVE ACTIVITY APPROACH IN TEACHING MULTIPLICATION AT THE THIRD GRADE LEVEL IN THE NORTH DALTON ELEMENTARY SCHOOL — DALTON, GEORGIA

Mathematics has become an increasingly fascinating and important study in recent years. Many children are excited by the orderliness of mathematics, by the sheer fun of manipulating numbers, by the scientific achievements possible through the use of mathematics, by the discovery of

a surprise relationship, or by the solution of a puzzling problem.

The negative attitudes that children and adults hold about mathematics were learned. Usually they could be traced to prior pressure to learn something that was either incomprehensible or boring to both. When children are frustrated for bored, changes need to be made.

The purpose of this study was to determine if a manipulative activity approach to teaching multiplication had an equally positive effect on multiplication achievement as did the traditional approach to teaching multiplication.

The subjects for this study were two third-grade classes at North Dalton Elementary School in Dalton, Georgia. The subjects were placed in each classroom without regard to mental ability, academic achievement, or socio-economic background.

The control group, a class of nineteen students, was taught multiplication using the traditional approach. The experimental group, a class of nineteen students, was taught multiplication using a manipulative activity approach. A multiplication facts pretest was given at the beginning of the study. The study lasted eight weeks, at the end of which time a posttest was given over the multiplication facts. A delayed posttest was given four weeks after instruction has ceased.

The gain from pretest to posttest was significant at .05 level, in favor of the experimental group. The gain from pretest to delayed posttest was significant at .05 level, in favor of the experimental group. Since there were just two groups to compare, the t-test was employed on the data from each of the comparisons: the results at the end of the treatment period and the results at the time of the delayed posttest.

It is recommended that similar studies be conducted to assess the effect of the manipulative activity method when subjects and teachers are selected from different schools and different areas.

Corley, Robert Leon, (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

A TWO-YEAR COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE GROUPING IN READING ACHIEVEMENT AT R.E. LEE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The study was an attempt to explore the effectiveness of the homogeneous grouping of one hundred thirty-two seventh-grade students in reading acheivement as measured by the Iowa Test of Basic Skills. A comparative study of the significance of the difference between the two correlated means was investigated over a nine-month period.

There was a significant difference in the low and top group at the corresponding confidence level of .02 of 5.79 and 6.5 respectively. These two groups improved a grade equivalent of eight months during this period. The middle group did not show any statistical significance (2.41) at the .02 level and the grade equivalent score improved only five months.

There was reason to believe, from the statistical analyses, that the grouping method employed is effective with the low group and the top group, but that it does not have any statistical significance on the middle group in reading achievement.

Garrett, Carolyn, R., (Specialist in Education, March, 1979)

THE EFFECT OF HAND-HELD CALCULATORS ON DECIMAL COMPUTATION AND PROBLEM SOLVING SKILLS OF EIGHTH-GRADE STUDENTS

This study was designed to determine the effect, if any, the use of hand-held calculators would have on the achievement of computation and problem solving skills involving decimals.

Subjects used in this study were two sections of eighth-grade students considered equivalent in terms of their progression in the Douglas County Math Program. During the four-week period from October 18, 1978 through November 14, 1978, instructional treatment was the same for both classes with the exception of the use of hand-held calculators by the experimental group. Each treatment period was 55 minutes daily for the four-week study. Subjects completing the experiment numbered 27 in the control group and 29 in the experimental group giving a total of 56 participants completing the experiment.

A pre-test designed by the investigator after consultation with Dr. Lamar Blanton, a professor of mathematics education at West Georgia College, was administered by the investigator and the teacher performing the experiment. A post-test similar in form to the pre-test was administered at the end of the study.

The t-test for the differences between two means was used to analyze the data. The null hypotheses were tested using the .05 level of significance. The t-values associated with the means gains in computation and problem solving skills indicated no significant differences; therefore, the null hypotheses were not rejected at the .05 level of significance. This would indicate that calculator usage within the purposes and limitations of this study had no statistically significant effect in the acquisition of decimal

computation and problem solving skills.

Although results indicated no significant differences, the mean gain in terms of computation was in favor of the control group whereas the mean gain in problem solving favored the experimental group. It is recommended that further studies be made in this area.

Goolsby, Roy Franklin, (Specialist in Education, August, 1979)

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF STUDENT PERFORMANCE UNDER THE QUARTER SYSTEM AND THE NINE-MONTH SYSTEM

The purpose of this study was to determine if there was any significant difference in student performance under the quarter system and the nine-month system.

After several years of operation on the quarter system in the two high schools in Rome, serious concern had arisen about the value and effectiveness of the quarter system.

West Rome High School was chosen for this study. The student population there was much more stable than that at East Rome High School, during the years selected for this study.

The West Rome High School Class of 1976, which attended school four years under the quarter system, was compared to the West Rome High School Class of 1972, which attended school four years under the nine-month system. Student performance in four areas was compared. Grades, attendance, drop-out rate, and retention rate of the Class of 1976 was compared to the same performance areas of the Class of 1976.

The Class of 1972 had a higher per cent of attendance, a lower drop-out rate, and a lower retention rate, for a more favorable outcome in three of the four areas of comparison. The Class of 1976 was superior to the Class of 1972 only in the area of grades.

A statistical analysis of the data being compared indicated that only in the area of attendance was there a significant difference.

A second component of this study was to obtain teacher opinion of the quarter system at West Rome High School. An opinionnaire was devised, and administered to the forty-one faculty members. Forty members responded.

A majority of the West Rome High School faculty indicated that the major weaknesses of the quarter system were (1) too many students avoiding the more advanced courses, (2) the time and effort required in the

registration and scheduling process, (3) courses not haveing built-in sequence and continuity, (4) too many lesson preparations during the year for teachers.

The study does not indicate a significant difference in the overall comparison of the quarter system and the nine-month system. It is recommended that the two high schools in Rome remain on the quarter system, with further study being given to changes that could improve the quarter system, in light of the problems identified by the teachers at West Rome High School.

Hall, Patricia Phillips, (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

PLANNING, IMPLEMENTING, AND EVALUATING AN OPEN MEDIA PROGRAM FOR RICO ELEMENTARY SCHOOL FULTON COUNTY, GEORGIA

The purpose of this study was to plan, implement, and evaluate an open media program for Rico Elementary School. The entire school, grades one through seven, participated in varying degrees in this study.

Planning for the study began in July, 1978, when questionnaires were sent to in-field resource people. The responses received helped in the formulation of an open media program developed to meet the unique needs of Rico School. The plan designed included changing from a scheduled to an unscheduled program, planning teacher-media specialist conferences, extending the use of student-assistants, and beginning a parent-volunteer program.

Implementation of the open media program necessitated involving the Rico staff and training additional personnel. Student-assistants, safety patrol helpers, and parent-volunteers were chosen and trained. Faculty meetings were held concerning the program changes and written directions were distributed. Schedules were made for teacher-media specialist conferences, student workers, and parent-volunteers. The media specialist instructed the student body in the program changes in December, 1978.

The sixth and seventh grade combination class was used as subjects for the evaluative phase of this study. Library utilization and book circulation, reference and library skills, and students' attitudes toward media center utilization were evaluated.

Library utilization and book circulation records were kept by the individual sixth and seventh grade students during a twenty-six week period throughout the 1978-1979 school year. This time allotment was divided into a nine-week base period and a seventeen-week experimental

period. The book circulation and library utilization data were evaluated by comparing the means between the base and experimental periods. During the experimental period library use increased considerably in the following ways: (1) book circulation increased, and (2) the number of student visits to the library to check out books increased. Library utilization increased slightly in (1) the amount of time spent in research, (2) the actual minutes students spent in the library, and (3) the number of students visits for the purpose of reading. On the other hand, library utilization for browsing decreased.

A reference and library skills test and an attitude survey toward media center utilization were administered by the investigator. The gains in achievement and attitude improvement were evaluated statistically using a t-test to analyze the data. The null hypotheses were not rejected at the .05 level of significance since neither test showed a significant difference at this level. However, the achievement scores were extremely close to being at a level of significance.

The data analyzed in this study indicate that the open media program did not produce significantly higher achievement than did the former library program. However, the tendency of the data indicated an increase in book circulation, library utilization and time spent in the library, and an improvement in students' attitudes toward the media center.

Harden, Carol Miller, (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

A COMPARISON OF TYPEWRITING CLASSES AT NORTH CLAYTON SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Problem

The purpose of this study was to compare the effectiveness of three different methods of teaching production typewriting to fourth-quarter typewriting classes at North Clayton Senior High School.

Procedure

Literature describing teaching methods for production typewriting was researched. Three of these methods were chosen to be used in a study at North Clayton Senior High School during the Fall 1978 quarter. The methods chosen were production, production and drill, and a production, drill, and self-paced activity combination.

The Production Only Students spent each entire class period typing problems which were timed. These students participated in no drills;

however, new material was previewed. As students determined their production rate, problems were reviewed.

The Production and Drill Students spent approximately 20 to 30 minutes of each class period typing timed problems. The remaining 15 to 20 minutes were spent in typing teacher-directed drills on problems and straight-copy material. Except for drills, these students were treated like the Production Only Students.

The Production, Drill, and Self-Paced Activity Students participated in a modified self-paced instruction plan. For 15 to 20 minutes three days each week, these students typed drills on problems and straight-copy material. When these students completed a unit, they were given a timed 30-minute production test. During the rest of the class time, these students participates in self-paced activities which were comprised of untimed problem typing.

A pretest consisting of a typewriting theory test, a five-minute writing, and a 30-minute production test was admninistered during the sixth and seventh class meetings. No theory was discussed, and no problems were typed prior to the pretest. The first five class periods were devoted to teacher-directed straight-copy drills and to short timings.

At the end of the quarter a posttest was given. The posttest consisted of the pretest typewriting theory test, a five-minute writing of equal difficulty as the pretest timing, and a 30-minute production test similar to the pretest.

A t-test was used to compare the posttest results with the pretest results. An f-test was used to test the null hypotheses: There will be no significant difference in the production achievement among the groups.

Conclusions

The conclusions drawn from the findings of this study were:

1. Students made progress in production typewriting regardless of teaching method.
2. The Production Only Students learned about the same as the Production and Drill Students.
3. The Production Only Students learned significantly more than the Production, Drill, and Self-Paced Activity Students.
4. The Production and Drill Students learned significantly more than the Production, Drill, and Self-Paced Activity Students.

Harris, Douglas Eugene, (Specialist in Education, June 1979)

A COMPARISION STUDY OF MATHEMATICS ACHIEVEMENT GAIN BETWEEN: (1) STUDENTS ENROLLED IN AN INDIVIDUALIZED PROGRAM VERSUS STUDENTS ENROLLED IN A TRADITIONAL PROGRAM; (2) STUDENTS ENROLLED IN A TRANSITIONAL TRADITIONAL PROGRAM VERSUS STUDENTS ENROLLED IN A TRADITIONAL PROGRAM

The Primary purpose of this study was to determine whether there was a signigficant difference in achievement gain made by students enrolled in a traditional mathematics program as opposed to achievement gain made by students enrolled in an individualized mathematics program.

A secondary purpose of this study was to determine whether there was a significant difference in achievement gain made by these study groups when placed in the same traditional mathematics program.

The areas under comparision were mathematical concepts, mathematical computation, mathematical applicastions and total mathematic score. Achievement gain in these areas was measured by correct student responeses on the Stanford Achievement Test, Intermediate level II Forms A and B.

The student population of the study consisted of three sixth grade classes at Emerson Elementary School (individualized mathematics program) and four sixth grade classes at Adairsville Elementary School (traditional mathematics program). Both of these schools are located in Bartow County, Georgia. A total of 161 students were involved in the initial pretesting of these classes, 161 students were involved in the original posttesting of these classes which serves as the pretesting for the secondary problem under consideration, and 125 students were involved in the final posttesting.

Analysis of the data obtained showed no significant difference in achievement gain between students enrolled in the individualized and the traditional programs. Secondary data analysis indicate that there is no significant difference in achievement gain between the same students when enrolled in traditional programs.

Haverkampf, David O., (MA, August, 1979)

ESSAYS ON THE I CHING

This thesis consists of five (5) separate essays which discuss the great 3,000 year old ancient Chinese oracle, the *I Ching.*

There are two separate essays introducing the *I Ching*, an essay on the sixty-four (64) hexagrams which comprise the *I Ching*, an essay dealing with the *I Ching* and parascience, and an essay discussing the relationship of the *I Ching* and acupuncture.

Both the philosopher-sage Confucius and the psychologist Dr. Carl G. Jung used the *I Ching* as a mens of divination.

The thesis includes the written symbols of the sixty-four (64) hexagrams drawn in the margins, as a means of clarification.

Hayes, Christine Y., (Specialist in Education, August, 1979)

A COMPARATIVE STUDY ON THE ACHIEVEMENT OF SIXTH GRADE STUDENTS TAUGHT SCIENCE USING AN INTEGRATED SCIENCE AND SOCIAL STUDIES APPROACH VS. A DEPARTMENTALIZED APPROACH

A study was conducted in an attempt to determine any differences in achievement and attitude between two groups of subjects who were taught a science unit by two different methods. Group I, the control group, was taught science using a departmentalized approach which included lecture, questions and answers and minimal experimentation. Group II, the experimental group, was taught science using an integrated science and social studies approach which included hands-on activities, experimentation, large/small group interaction.

The classes in Group I and II were heterogeneously grouped. They were considered equivalent because assignment to classes was a random process. The two teachers involved in the study taught each group for a six week period of time.

A sixty-four item science achievement test as well as a sixteen item science attitude test was administered as a pretest and posttest equivalent group design in the study. A one-way analysis of covariance was used in the data analysis with the pretest as a covariate. The results of the comparison revealed that using an integrated science and social

studies approach to science instruction was not significantly more effective than using a departmentalized approach. The results also revealed that students had a more positive attitude toward science when receiving science instruction with an integrated approach rather than a departmentalized approach.

Herring, Jack R., (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND PLANNING: A PLAN FOR IMPLEMENTATION IN A RURAL COMPREHENSIVE HIGH SCHOOL

The Career Development and Planning Program as developed in this paper provides for continuity and sequencing in education and makes learning more relevant and meaningful for students who participate fully in the program. An individual who has an awareness of self and others; who has awareness of the basic skills and education required of a variety of careers; who has been taught decision-making skills; and who has developed positive attitudes toward work, and an understanding of the work ethic imposed by society will be an active and contributing member of society. Education, then, becomes more meaningful in school and throughout life. The Career Development and Planning Program then, is a means of achieving this goal.

Hooper, Judith H., (Specialist in Education, March, 1979)

A COMPARISON OF IQ AND THE LENGTH OF TIME STUDENTS ARE ENROLLED IN A PSYCHO-EDUCATIONAL CENTER

In July, 1978, fifty student from the terminated files of a psychoeducational center were randomly selected to record IQ scores and the length of time, in school months, that each had attended the psychoeducational center. These students had been ascertained to have emotional problems or behavior disorders.

This study was conducted to determine if there was any relationship between IQ and number of school months that the student attended the psychoeducational center. The IQ and number of school months for each student were compared and the Spearman rank order correlation coefficient was used to determine if there was any significant correlation between IQ and number of months in attendance at the psychoeducational center.

Huntley, Jane Jordan, (Specialist in Education, August, 1979)

A STUDY OF A NEED FOR A HUMAN SEXUALITY PROGRAM IN THE ROME CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM

In 1978, the Georgia Department of Human Resources collected statistics that revealed an alarming increase in the rate of teenage illegimate births. The governor requested this survey. He advised local communities and school superintendents to assess their local needs and work together in developing a program of action.

The purpose of this study was to assess the need in the rome City Schools for a human sexaulity program. To determine the need, a ten item questionnaire was administered to Rome teachers and students. Distribution was made to the two high schools and junior high schools in the school district. One hundred and seven faculty members completed the questionnaire at each location. Forty-seven eleventh graders and sixty eighth graders were surveyed and the same number completed.

Descriptive research was used in the study. Responses were tabulated by dividing the data first, into teacher and student groups and secindly, into male and female groups. Percentages were calculated on each response. An item analysis was used to interpret the findings. Responses which indicated differences, discrepancies, and likenesses when tabluated were utilized in reporting the data.

Ninety percent of the students and teachers agreed that a human sexuality program was needed. The findings of the study were presentes to the Rome City Schools Superintendent. Further research was recommended to determine the schools' role in executing a human sexuality program.

Ivey, Deborah Dobson, (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

THE INFLUENCE OF THE TEACHING OF GENEALOGY ON ATTITUDE AND ACHIEVMENT IN LOCAL HISTORY

This study attempted to determine if the study of genealogy would result in a significant gain in (1) student attitude toward social studies or (2) student achievement in knowledge of local history. The subjects of this study were the six heterogeneous classes of seventh graders in social studies at Bowdon Elementary School, Bowdon, Georgia. The control group consisted of three randomly selected classes and the experimental group consisted of the remaining three classes.

Since all students had been given the *Nelson Reading Test*, the mean scores for the control group and the experimental group were computed. The t-tests for the difference between the means determined that there were no significant differences in the two groups in regard to reading ability at the beginning of the study.

Remmers' Any School Subject Survey Form A was given as an attitude pretest. A teacher-made pretest on local history was given as an achievement measure.

The experimental periods lasted eight weeks for the control group and nine weeks for the experimental group. A unit on Carroll County and Georgia history was taught to the control group. The same unit was tuaght to the experimental group, with the addition of instruction and discussion in genealogy, historical research, and the incorporation of the students' knowledge about their ancestors into the subject matter.

At the end of the experimental period *Remmers' Any School Subject Survey* Form B and a teacher-made test on subject matter were given as attitude and achievement tests. Mean gains in attitude and achievement, as demonstrated by scores on the pretests and posttests were calculated. The t-tests found that there were no significant differences in attitude gains or achievement gains at the .05 level of significance.

The hypotheses were accepted. It was concluded that the teaching of genealogy with local history does not produce a significant gain in attitude or achievement.

Jackson, Barry N., (Specialist in Education, August, 1979)

A MULTI-MEDIA APPROACH TO TEACHING LOCAL GOVERNMENT ON THE SECONDARY LEVEL

High school students need to know and want to know about their local government. The 26th Amendment which extended the voting franchise to 18 year ols makes the need for local government studies more crucial than ever. Studies show that the classroom lecture approach, traditionally used in teaching government, has not met the needs of today's students. Neither will such an approach succeed in teaching students about local government. New ideas must be introduced into the social studies classroom if students are to grasp the complexities of local government services and if they are to realize the need to participate in local politics. The multi-media approach to local government studies is a means toward this end.

Locally collected materials such as newspapers, telephone books, maps, floorplans, slides, and transparencies make it easier for high

school students to learn about local government. Special teaching techniques which use sample documents, circuit board, computers, visitations, and voter registration materials not only enhance the traditional approach but also add realism. An adequate amount of class time spent in preparing students to appreciate local government increases the students' desires to understand their local government and to become competent contributing factors in that government.

Laney, James A., Jr., (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

A STUDY OF THE EXISTING USE OF SUBSTITUTE TEACHERS IN THE FLOYD COUNTY SCHOOL SYSTEM, GEORGIA

This study reports on 247 questionnaires dealing with the subject of adequate training and employment procedures for substitute teachers in Floyd County, Georgia, public schools.

Respondents were 144 substitutes, 87 classroom teachers, and 16 principals.

Findings revealed a lack of a unified, consistent policy at either the county administrative level, or within the member schools.

Such policy as is formalized permits principals, teachers or school secretaries to choose and notify substitutes. There is no procedural check for notification as to duties, terms of employment, or evaluation of performance.

Inasmuch as substitutes served 4,322 student days in 1978, the study concludes with recommendations for selection criteria, in-service training and evaluation procedures for an improved substitute teacher program in Floyd County.

Lenney, Eleanor A., (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

A SURVEY OF VOLUNTARY READING INTERESTS OF SEVENTH-GRADE STUDENTS AT OSBORNE MIDDLE SCHOOL

This study proposed to ascertain that the patterns of interests found in earlier studies actually held true for the students at Osborne Middle School. The purpose was to discover and tabulate the subject matter about which the students voluntarily chose to read. In light of current changes in attitudes toward women's rights, one objective of this research was to discover whether boys' and girls' interests were as differentiated as those of students in the past. Investigation was made of

the influences on their reading and where their books were obtained. Previous studies indicated that ability was of no significance in determining reading interests. To see if this held true, the relationship between reading ability and reading interests was investigated.

The following hypotheses were tested:

1. There will be no significant difference between the patterns of reading interests of boys and girls.
2. There will be no significant difference in the frequencies of fiction and non-fiction chosen by boys and girls.
3. There will be no significant difference in the patterns of interests shown by high-ability boys and low-ability boys, or by high-ability girls and low-ability girls.

The subjects for the study were 134 seventh-graders at Osborne Middle School, Cobb County, Georgia. Osborne serves a lower-to-middle class surburban community of about 800 students in grades six, seven and eight.

Informations was gathered in an interest survey given during the first weeks of school and from records kept by students during the year. Results were tabulated and analyzed by using chi square. The results were considered significant at the .05 level.

The first hypothesis was rejected, as there was a great difference in the reading patterns of boys and girls, significantly at the .001 level. The third hypothesis was not rejected. There was little difference between the high-ability groups and the low-ability groups.

An analysis was made on the reasons students choose books. The difference between boys and girls was significant at the .001 level.

It appears that sex is still the major influence on reading at the middle-school level.

Mahan, Gary Douglas, (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

SPORTS LITERATURE AS A MEANS OF INCREASING LITERARY SKILLS OF RELUCTANT READERS

The purpose of this study was to determine whether students in a sports literature program achieve significantly higher scores in literary interpretation and understanding than do students in other literature programs.

The subjects of the study were an experimental group of students in two Sports Literature classes taught by the researcher and a control

group consisting of an American Novel class taught by another teacher and an American Short Story class taught by a third teacher.

A pretest was given to all classes during the first week in September by the researcher, and a posttest was given to all the four classes near the end of November. Intelligence test scores were also collected for each student.

An analysis of covariance computed for the data indicated that students in sports literature classes do not achieve significantly higher scores in literary understanding and interpretation than do students in other literature classes.

Matthews, Margaret Williams, (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

A STUDY TO DETERMINE THE EFFECTIVNESS OF THE DEVELOPMENTAL LAB AT CARROLL COUNTY AREA VOCATIONAL-TECHNICAL SCHOOL

This study was designed to determine the effectiveness of the Developmental Lab at Carroll County Area Vocational-Technical School. The purpose of the study was to determine if there is a significant difference between students who attend the Developmental Lab before entering the Licensed Practical Nursing program and students who do not attend the Developmental Lab. Analysis of Covariance was used to analyze the Data. Reading, language, and mathematics grade equivalent scores from the pre-test Test of Adult Basic Education were used to adjust the post-test grade point average (GPA) and state board scores (SBS) of the two groups. The analysis of the data revealed that no significant difference exists between the two groups. The null hypothesis were accepted, therefore, we can assume the lab is effective in upgrading basic skills in the area of reading, language, and mathematics.

Nelson, Davis R., (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

SEX EDUCATION GUIDE

Sex education in the public schools has, for many years, been considered a taboo subject. The task of the school is to provide a well rounded education program for its population. The lack of sexual knowledge by students makes it imperative that the schools provide an educational teaching program for their students.

The resource unit will serve the appropriate school personnel in their task of making the student aware of the knowledge needed to cope with his/her body.

The resource unit consists of the various areas of study that noted authors and educators recommend to be included in a sex education study for students. The subjects are placed in the order recommended to be taught. Tests, student questions, help agencies, surveys, and terms are provided to assist the instructor with the use of these materials.

Nevois, Leslie Ann, (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

A PERSONALITY PROFILE OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL COUNSELORS IN GEORGIA AS MEASURED BY THE SIXTEEN PERSONALITY FACTOR QUESTIONNAIRE

This study was undertaken in an effort to determine the personality characteristics of junior high school counselors (specifically grades 7 and 8) in the state of Georgia. The objective of this study were achieved by analyzing individual personality profiles of junior high school counselors. Research was limited to one group of respondents, composed of forty school counselors at the seventh and eighth grade level. The data was obtained from the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16 PF), an objectively scorable test designed to give complete coverage of personality in a brief time.

Literature examined produced personality characteristics of counselors not unlike those found upon analysis of the data for this study. Reviewed literature and the subsequent findings of this study agreed on the following: (1) certain personality characteristics are particularly appropriate for counselors; (2) no significant dissimilarities in personality characteristics exist between male and female counselors; (3) certain personality characteristics influence the effectiveness potential of counselors, and (4) counselors generally possess personality characteristics which allow them to offer a high degree of unconditional positive regard, empathy, warmth, and trust.

This study lends support to the theory that certain measured personality characteristics can be predicators of potential counselor effectiveness and that these characteristics typify the junior high school counselors in Georgia.

Owens, Betty, (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

A COMPARISON OF CRITERION-REFERENCED TEST SCORES AT THE EIGHTH GRADE LEVEL

A comparison of the eighth grade Georgia Criterion-Referenced Test scores for East Rome Junior High School was made in an effort to determine whether any significant progress has been made in the areas of reading, math, and career development over the past three years (1976, 1977, 1978).

The results of the study indicated that there has not been a significant increase in the scores.

Possible reason for this include: change in student population; academic level of students; present curriculum not effective; more time needed to show evidence of increase.

Phillips, Laura, (Specialist in Education, June,1979)

THE EFFECTS OF CONCRETENESS AND IMAGERY ON PAIRED-ASSOCIATE LEARNING AND RECALL IN THE READING PROCESS

This study was conducted to determine the possible effects of concreteness and imagery training in paired-associate learning and recall in the reading process. The thirty-eight students involved in the study were from Taylorsville School, Bartow County School System, Taylorsville, Georgia.

Experimental Group a was trained to "image," or make up pictures in their heads, of material read. Comparison Group B was instructed to remember the material "for later," but received no special training. Inherent in the study was the question of whether students learnes pairs best when presented as pictures, concrete nouns, abstract nouns, or verbs.

A paired-associate test was adapted from a study conducted by Epstein, Rock, and Zuckerman (1960). Vocabulary and comprehension pretest and posttest scores were acquired through the administration of the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills.

A series of t-tests were used to analyze data collected in the paired-associate tasks, and analyses of covariance were used ti analyze pretest and posttest data from the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills.

The results of the statistical analyses indicated that the students in Experimental Group A learned and recalled at the .001 level of

significance more pairs than Comparison Group B when pictures were used as the means of presentation. Futhermore, Experimental Group A showed a greater gain in reading comprehension which was significant at the .005 level.

Phipps, Bonnie Louise Philpot, (Specilaist in Education, June, 1979)

A FOLLOW-UP STUDY OF THE 1973-1978 WEST GEORGIA COLLEGE BUSINESS EDUCATION GRADUATES

A study was made of 41 West Georgia College Business Education graduates to evaluate the undergraduate business education curriculum.

The following subproblems were analyzed:

1. The first subproblem is to determine if West Georgia College's Business Education graduates are teaching.
2. The second subproblem is to determine what the graduates are doing if they are not teaching.
3. The third subproblem is to determine the effectiveness of West Georgia College's Business Education program in training business teachers.
4. The fourth subproblem is to determine if the Business Education certification curriculum needs to be modified to meet the needs of the students.
5. The fifth subproblem is to determine the extent to which the skill courses are being emphasized.
6. The sixth subproblem is to determine the extent to which the basic business courses are being emphasized.
7. The seventh subproblem is to determine if there are particular areas in which additional training should be offered.

The following conclusion was drawn from this study:

West Georgia College has a well-rounded undergraduate curriculum in the Department of Business Education.

Rakestraw, Tyre L., Jr., (Specialist in Education, March, 1979)

A STUDY OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE PROGRAM OF EDUCATION AND CAREER EXPLORATION ON THE STUDENT'S ABILITY TO LEARN JOB INFORMATION

In March 1978, a study was begun, at Paulding County High School, to determine if the Program of Education and Career Exploration, P.E.C.E., was worthwhile and effective by comparing the amount of job

information known by students before and after taking the P.E.C.E. course.

The students for this study were randomly chosen from a total of one hundred and five students enrolled in four classes of P.E.C.E. at Paulding County High School located in Dallas, Georgia. A total of twenty studentsd were selected and classified as the experimental group. The research design employed in this study was the pretest posttest, using the Job Knowledge Test as the measuring instrument.

The experimental group reflected a marked increase on the posttest scores over the pretest scores, thus showing the difference to be significant beyond the .05 level of significance.

It is recommended that similar studies be conducted on other school systems to assess the effectiveness of their P.E.C.E. programs. This is to insure that the students are receiveing the information concerning job knowledge that will be so beneficial to them in the near future.

Rawls, Kathryn Handley, (Specialist in Education, August, 1979)

SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING IN SATURDAY MORNING TELEVISION ADVERTISEMENTS

The main purpose of this study was to determine the existence of sex-role stereotyping in Saturday morning television advertisements directed toward children. This study was conducted between the hours of 8:00 a.m. and 12:00 noon on the following dates: July 28, 1979, August 4, 1979 and August 18, 1979. The three major networks were represented in 186 commercials and six variables were analyzed.

The six variables under analysis were as follows: product representation, occupations of adult characters, gender of the voice-overs, total number of male and female characters, active or passive roles of male and female characters, and settings which noted whether the characters were shown indoors or outdoors.

To determine if significant differences existed, comparative percentages were drawn in the areas of product representation and occupations. The Chi Square statistic was applied to test for significant differences the hypotheses related to voice-overs, total number of characters, roles, and settings.

The research hypotheses were accepted at the .05 level of significance and the study revealed that differences exist in the types of products that males and females advertised or represented. Male characters portrayed a greater variety of occupations as compared with female characters. All of the voice-overs of the advertisements examined were male. In a total count of characters, males outnumbered the females significantly. Males were more often active in their roles while females

were more often passive. Males were shown in outdoor settings more often then females who were more often shown indoors. Based on these findings the study concluded that sex-role stereotyping existed in Saturday moring advertisements.

Robinson, Sara R., (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

THE EFFECT OF LEFT BRAIN—RIGHT BRAIN STIMULATION INSTRUCTION ON THE READING ACHIEVEMENT OF FIFTH AND SIXTH GRADE REMEDIAL STUDENTS

This study was designed to determine what differnce in reading achievement would be found between subjects taught by two different methods. Fifty fifth and sixth year remedial reading students from West Haralson Elementary School were divided into two heterogeneous groups of twenty-five. Experimental group A was taught reading skills through strategies designed to stimulate both brain hemispheres. The comparison group B was taught the same skills as they occured in the context of the regular remedial reading program.

Pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest scores were gathered from both groups, and a statistical analysis using the Analysis of Covariance was made. The covariates were age and I.Q. The level of significance was established as .05.

This study provided a basis for support or rejection of the following null hypotheses:

1. There will be no significant difference in gains from pretest to posttest between the experimental group and the control group when I.Q. and age are used as covariates.

2. There will be no significant difference in the gains from posttest to delayed posttest between the experimental group and the control group when age and I.Q. are used as covariates.

Null hypotheses one and two were not rejected. This study indicated the need for further investigations about the relationship of the left and right brain hemispheres to learning.

Summerfield, Rachel Ann, (MA, June, 1979)

THE AUTHENTIC INDIVIDUAL OR, HOW TO BE A HERO: JOSEPH K. vs. PSYCHE

Now that the Human Potential movement has been around for a number of years, we are all familiar with the terms "authenticity" and "inauthenticity"; yet it is easy to get lost in the jardon and forget what the words actually mean. In an attempt to look closely at what authenticity is, two figures from literature are used as illustrations: Joseph K., from *The Trail* by Franz Kafka and Psyche, form the myth of Cupid and Psyche as told by Apuleius in *The Golden Ass.* Joseph K. is an example of an inauthentic individual, while Psyche is an example if an authentic one. Authenticity is synonymous with answering one's call or fulfilling one's destiny; thus, being an authenic individual is being a hero. The opportunity to be authenic is always present to us. The theroetical basis for this essay is described as a synthesis of the psychologies of Carl Jung and Ronald D. Laing.

Taylor, Linda M., (Specialist in Education, March, 1979)

AN ASSESSMENT OF IMPROVED COUNCELOR EFFECTIVENESS AS A RESULT OF COUNSELOR METHODS COURSES

The purpose of this study was to assess increased Counselor effectiveness as a result of the Counseling Methods Course 888 at West Georgia College.

The Personal Orientation Inventory was administered to 32 Counseling Methods students prior to their first class experience and again upon completion of the course.

Time Competent and Inner-Directed ratio scores were computed and correlated using the T-test formula. The Time Competent Ratio score was found to be significant beyond the .05 level. The inner-Directed Ratio score was found to be significant beyond the .05 level.

Thomas, Ann W., (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

A COMPARISON OF INDIVIDUALIZED AND GROUP ENGLISH GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION

The problem involved in this study was to determine if there was a significant difference in the progress made in English grammar achievement by fify-seven eight grade students at Buchanan Junior High School in Buchanan, Georgia under individualized instruction and group instruction. Comparisons were made of the achievement progress differences in two groups during two research time periods.

During the first time period, Group A was the experimental group instructed through the individualized technique, and Group B was the control group given group instruction. During the second research time period, the groups' intructional techinques were reversed. Comparisons were made between the two groups during both research time periods, between the total groups' individualized and group techniques, and between males' and females' progress under both techniques.

Achievement progress was determined by pretest and posttest scores on text oriented tests designed by the textbook authors, and significance was determined by the t-test for independent means.

Results indicated that there was a significant difference in favor of individualized instruction for both research time periods and for the total group comparison. There was no significant difference in the comparison of males and females under either instructional technique.

Thompson, Terry, (MA, March, 1979)

BELLES AND DUMBBELLS: SOUTHERN LITERARY STEREOTYPES

This thesis presents background information concerning Southern male stereotypes which is essential to a full appreciation of Southern literature and the various characters therein. The scholarly introduction gives a brief synopsis of the three most famous Southern male stereotypes: the Good Ol' Boy, the Southern Gentleman, and the Unreconstructed Rebel. Each is relate in terms of his mentality, his appearance, his violent tendencies, and his treatment of women. It is hoped that this thesis will allow the reader to enjoy Southern writing with a new and deeper understanding of the Southern male in general and Southern male stereotypes inparticular.

In the poems and short stories there is no conscious attempt to present an example of a Good Ol' Boy, Or either of the other two stereotypes; rather, the works are based upon unique experiences, most of them firsthand, that serve to demonstate some of the traits, peculiarities, quirks, and afflictions that characterize the creature called Southern man.

Wilburn, Nell, (Specialist in Education, August, 1979)

A STUDY OF THE RESULTS OF INFORMAL READING INSTRUCTION IN KINDERGARTEN AS A FACTOR IN THE READING ACHIEVEMENT OF FIRST AND SECOND GRADERS IN THE SPRING PLACE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, SPRING PLACE, GEORGIA

Teaching reading in the kindergarten is a highly controversial topic. The purpose of this paper was to determine if those students who received informal reading instruction in the kindergarten scored significantly higher in reading at the end of the first grade and again at the end of the second grade than those students who did not receive informal reading instruction prior to entering the first grade.

The subjects in the study were a group of 109 children who attend the first and second grades at Spring Place Elementary School in the Spring Place, Georgia. The students were placed randomly in the various classrooms.

Both groups of students were instructed in the readiness, pre-primer, primer, and first readers in the same manner. At the end of grade one and again at the end of grade two, the Iowa Test of Basic Skills was administered to determine reading achievement.

The results of the tests at the end of each year showed a considerable difference in the mean scores between the two groups, however, due to the unusually large standard deviation the t-test did not reveal a significant difference between the experimental and comparison groups.

It is recommended that similiar studies should be conducted with students from different school to see if the results are similiar.

Vaughn, Karen L., (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

A COMPARISON OF THE ACHIEVEMENT OF ETOWAH HIGH SCHOOL DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION STUDENTS WHO WERE TAUGHT HUMAN RELATIONS BY IDECC LAPS WITH STUDENTS WHO WERE TAUGHT HUMAN RELATIONS BY TA

Problem

The problem of this study was to compare the achievement of high school distributive education students who were taught human relations by IDECC LAPs with students who were taught human relations by TA.

Subproblems

The first subproblem was to determine whether students learn human relations more effectively using IDECC LAPs or TA.

The second subproblem was to determine whether IDECC or TA is more effective in developing the sociability level of a student.

The third subproblem was to determine whether IDECC or TA is more effective in developing the social presence level of a student.

The fourth subproblem was to determine whether IDECC or TA is more effective in developing the self-acceptance level of a student.

The fifth subproblem was to determine whether IDECC or TA is more effective in developing the sense of well-being level of a student.

The sixth subproblem was to determine whether IDECC or TA is more effective in developing the responsibility level of a student.

The seventh subproblem was to determine whether IDECC or TA is more effective in developing the socialization level of a student.

The eighth subproblem was to determine whether IDECC or TA is more effective in developing the self-control level of a student.

The ninth subproblem was to determine whether IDECC or TA is more effective in developing the tolerance level of a student.

The tenth subproblem was to determine whether IDECC or TA is more effective in developing the good impression level of a student.

The eleventh subproblem was to determine whether IDECC or TA is more effective in developing the communality level of a student.

Procedure

Two distributive education classes at Etowah High School participated in this study for nine weeks during the first semester of the 1978-79 school year. These classes were assigned to one of two groups—IDECC control group, or Transactional Analysis experimental group.

The control group used the Human Relation Learning Activity Packages (LAPs) developed by IDECC. The experimental group was taught Human Relations skills through Transactional Analysis using information and materials from *Am I OK?* written by Paul L. Phillips, Ed. D., and Franklin D. Cordell, Ph.D.

Both groups spent eight weeks studying human relations. One week was utilized for pretesting and posttesting.

Both groups were pretested and posttested on human relations using the California Psychology Inventory.

West, Howard E., Jr., (MS, June, 1979)

AN ASSESSMENT OF THE BLUEGILL, *Lepomis macrochirus*, POPULATION IN LAKE CARROLL, CARROLL COUNTY, GEORGIA

According to local fihermen, bluegill fishing in Lake Carroll has been poor for the past several years. A bluegill of 6 inches (150 mm) or longer is generally considered to be "keeping size" and few fish of this size were being caught in Lake Carroll. A population study showed a maximum of only 4% of the bluegill population to be 6 inches or longer and only 0.1% to be 7 inches (178 mm) or longer. An age and growth study showed only a slightly below average growth rate for the first two growing seasons but marked decline after the second growing season. Results also indicated an above average mortality rate for fish three years and older, with few fish surviving to age four and almost none surviving to age five. After determining that the Lake Carroll bluegill population was abnormal in theses respects, other studies were initiated to try and determine the factors responsible. Areas which were investigates included population density of the bluegill and other fish species, food availability and parasite burden. Results showed a high density of bluegill (1,129/ha) and a low density of macrozoobenthis organisms (122/m^2). The macrozoobenthis organisms serve as the main source of food for the adult bluegill. The high population density and poor food availability are believed to be the factors chiefly responsible for both the poor growth rate and the high mortality rate. There is, however, speculation that an unidentified parasitic nematode is also contributing significantly to the high mortality rate.

Williams, Mary Sue, (Specialist in Education, June, 1979)

POSSIBLE COMPUTER APPLICATIONS FOR INTERMEDIATE SERVICE AGENCIES

The purpose of this project was to study the feasibility of automatic data processing on the intermediate service agency level. With the proliferation of paper work required by federal, state, and local bureaucracy school administrators and central office personnel are searching for inexpensive and rapid ways of processing data.

Innovators in the field of education have proposed computer-based or computer-assisted instruction as the most feasible means of providing individualized programs of instruction.

The computer field has, since the advent of the fist commercially available automatic data processor, continuously worked to lower the cost and reduce the size of the computer. Computers are now in the range of many school systems and intermediate service agencies.

In order to study the use of the computer in education and in the intermediate service agency a general review of the literature was conducted. It was evident through the literature that the computer had many applications in the business management of the public schools and in the hige amount of record management, both student and personnel. Computer-assisted instruction had been in evidence since the early days of the computer when the computer companies used their machines to train their employees.

To study the feasibility of computer applications in the state of Georgia and to narrow the study down to the Northwest Georgia Cooperative Service Agencies, two surveys were administered. All directors of Georgia CESAs were mailed questionnairs, and all school superintendents in the Northwest Georgia CESA district were mailed questionnaires. The results of these questionnaires were tabulated, compared and conclusions were drawn. A number of applications were identified.

The date received from the CESAs and the superintendents was compared with what is being done on the intermediate service level in other areas of the United States.

It was concluded that certain data processing applications would be feasible for intermediate service agencies.

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February 8 Recital for Lit-Mu Club, Carrollton

February 12 Recital for Canterbury Court Retirement Home, Atlanta.

April 2 Recital, Liberty Baptist Church, Lynchburg, Virginia

April 17 Recital, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee

May 10 Two Piano Performance with Betty Tolbert for Lit-Mu Club, Carrollton.

May 12 Two-Piano Recital with Betty Tolbert for Sigma Alpha Iota American Musicale, Carrollton

July 22 Two-Piano Recital with Betty Tolbert for West Georgia College Piano Camp.

September 20 Recital at University of the South, Sewanee,Tennessee (premiere of Sonata No. 3 by Robert Donahue)

October 21 Recital, Brunswick Junior College, Brunswick, Georgia

October 22 Recital for Mozart Society of Glynn County, Brunswick, Georgia

October 26 Recital for Canterbury Court Retirement Home, Atlanta

November 10 Soloist in Beethoven's Choral Fantasy with Rome Symphony Orchestra

November 26 Recital, Shorter College, Rome, Georgia

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Volume XIII May, 1981

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The purpose of this publication is to provide encouragement for faculty research and to make available results of such activity. The *Review*, published annually, accepts original scholarly work and creative writing. West Georgia College assumes no responsibility for contributors' views. The style guide is Kate L. Turabian. *A Manual for Writers.* Although the *Review* is primarily a medium for the faculty of West Georgia College, other sources are invited.

An annual bibliography includes doctoral dissertations, major recitals and major art exhibits. Theses and articles in progress or accepted are not listed. A faculty member's initial listing is comprehensive and appears in the issue of the year of his employment. The abstracts of all master's theses and educational specialist's projects written at West Georgia College are included as they are awarded.

CULTURE AS AN ASPECT OF STYLE IN FANTASY

*by William S. Doxey**

I became interested in culture as an aspect of style in the course of my own writing both of and about science fiction and fantasy. It seemed to me that authors had to take culture into consideration as they created imaginary worlds and populated them with imaginary beings. My reason for this conclusion was based upon the observation that culture, as an aspect of style, served two useful purposes: it helped establish verisimilitude and it served to create conflict.

These uses are of course evident in mainstream fiction, too. Take, for example, the work of Sir Walter Scott. In his historical romances, he chose a moment in history when two cultures were in conflict and the outcome was in doubt (for instance, Norman vs. Saxon in *Ivanhoe*). Scott used cultural details to establish life-like characters and scenes, and he also employed cultural beliefs to develop conflict.

It seems to me that fantasy writers also make use of culture in these two ways (whether consciously or not), and that, furthermore, if we were more aware of culture as an aspect of style in fantasy, we might better understand it and, therefore, enjoy it even more than we do. Towards that end I will examine the stylistic uses of culture in three of the stories of Jorge Borges and in Tolkien's long story, "Farmer Giles of Ham."

For the purpose of this discussion, I take culture to mean the customs, arts, languages, religions, sciences—and so on—of a life form in a given period. Style, that elusive term, I understand to be the writer's choice of material and the use he puts it to as he develops his work for an audience. Finally, fantasy means to me a freedom to operate unrestrained by the standards of accepted reality, whether they be the laws of science or those of society.

While Borges gives evidence in many of his stories of a keen interest in culture, one story which depends for conflict upon the clash of two cultures is "The South." Dahlmann, the main character, exists as a librarian in the "real" world of Buenos Aires, but he seems to "live" in a romantic past of his own conception, which is focused upon his maternal grandfather, Francisco Flores, who long ago was killed by Indians. Dahlmann has managed to perserve a small ranch in the s South once owned by the Flores family; he aspires to live there one day.

To this point, Borges' story exhibits nothing of the fantastic. But then an event occurs which the narrator introduces by saying, "Blind to all fault, destiny can be ruthless at one's slightest distraction."[1] Distracted while

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[1]Jorge Borges, "The South," trans. by Anthony Kerrigan, in *Ficcones* (New York: Grove Press, 1962,), p. 167; subsequent references in parentheses are to this source.

reading a volume of that collection of fantastic tales, *The Thousand and One Nights*, as he climbs the stairs to his apartment, Dahlmann has a strange accident; "something brushed by his forehead: a bat, a bird?" (p. 168) But no, it is the edge of a door. He has sustained a serious injury which leads to feverish sleep broken by nightmares inspired by *The Thousand and One Nights*. Later, he is removed to a sanitarium, is x-rayer, and undergoes brain surgery, after which he almost dies from "septicemia and suffers terribly" (p. 168). We do not know how much time passes, but one day the surgeon tells him that soon he will "go to his ranch for convalescence" (p. 169).

His departure from the world of Buenos Aires—from the culture of his "real" existence—is introduced by the narrator's cryptic statement that "Reality favors symmetries and slight anachronisms" (p. 169). He boards a train and reads from his *Thousand and One Nights* to pass the time, but soon "the joy of life distracted him"—another **distraction**—from the world of fantasy, and he "closed his book and allowed himself to live" (p. 170). At this point, the world of Buenos Aires and that of the traveller come together in his mind, and he views the passing sights "like dreams" because "his actual knowledge ... was quite inferior to his nostalgic and literary knowledge" (p. 170-171). He sleeps, or seems to, and his world appears to change, so that even the railroad car is not the same.

At last Dahlmann leaves the train and goes to a country store to seek a ride to his ranch. Now he is operating in a culture different from that of Buenos Aires. Some "country louts" are drinking at a table, and an "old man" who "seemed outside of time" squatted on the floor (p. 172). As Dahlmann eats, one of the men tosses a "spit ball of breadcrumb" that brushed "lightly against his face" (p. 173). Dahlmann opens *The Thousand and One Nights* "by way of suppressing reality" (p. 173). Another spit ball lands, and a confrontation occurs between Dahlmann and one of the drinkers, a man with "a Chinese look" who challenges him to a knife fight. When the owner of the store protests that Dahlmann is unarmed, the mysterious old man throws him "a naked dagger," and the narrator says, "it was as if the South had resolved that Dahlmann should accept the duel" (p. 174). Dahlmann feels that he will die and thinks, "**They would not have allowed such things to happen to me in the sanitarium**" (p. 175, italics Borges'). He prepares to fight "without hope" but also "without fear," for he felt that had he been allowed to choose his fate in the sanitarium, "or to dream his death, this would have been the death he would have chosen or dreamed" (p. 176).

Borges uses culture stylistically in "The South" to establish a conflict in Dahlmann's mind, one that concerns his escape into a romantic conception of the past which becomes his present reality in the trip to the Flores ranch. The story is fantasy rather than mainstream, because in reality—so to speak—Dahlmann never leaves the sanitarium; his journey

South to fulfillment occurs in his imagination. That this is indeed the case is indicated by Borges' nostalgic portrayal of cultural artifacts associated with the South: houses that "timelessly" watched the passing trains (p. 170), "luminous clouds" (p. 170), the "transfigured" railroad car (p. 171). the old man, a gaucho of the type "that no longer existed outside the South" (p. 172), and, finally, the "Chinese look" of his adversary, an oriental description remindful of the features of those Indians that killed his ancestor so long ago in the same South (p. 173).

A cultural conflict is also employed by Borges in his humorous story, "Pierre Menard, Author of Don Quixote." Menard is said to have written a picaresque novel titled *Don Quixote* which is identical to the *Don Quixote* written by Cervantes in the seventeenth century, yet Menard's book is not a copy of Cervantes'. Rather, he—independently and with much labor—has brought forth *Don Quixote* as though for the first time. This apparent absurdity becomes fantastic when the narrator explains its significance in cultural terms: "To compose *Don Quixote* at the beginning of the seventeenth century was a reasonable, necessary and perhaps inevitable undertaking; at the beginning of the twentieth century it is almost impossible,"[2] because the cultural milieu of Cervantes' book is past and that of Menard's is totally different. Therefore, when his lines are interpreted in view of this difference, they take on a new meaning and become, says the narrator, "almost infinitely richer. (More ambiguous, his detractors will say; but ambiguity is a richness)" (p. 52).

As an example, the narrator cites the following passage from the *Don Quixote* of Cervantes: "... truth, whose mother is history, who is the rival of time, depository of deeds, witness of the past, example and lesson to the present, and warning to the future ..." and compares it to Menard's: "... truth, whose mother is history, who is the rival of time, depository of deeds, witness of the past, example and lesson to the present, and warning to the future" (p. 53). The narrator then declares, "History, **mother** of truth; the idea is astounding. Menard, a contemporary of William James, does not define history as an investigation of reality, but as its origin; it is what we think took place" (p. 53).

The narrator also examines the styles of the two authors from a cultural viewpoint and finds that "the archaic style of Menard—in the last analysis a foreigner—suffers from a certain affectation. Not so that of his precursor, who handles easily the Spanish of his time" (p. 53).

The conclusion of the story is best understood if the idea of cultural contrast is in one's mind as he reads, "This technique would fill the dullest books with adventure. Would not the attributing of *The Imitation of*

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[2]Jorge Borges, "Pierre Menard, Author of Don Quixote," trans. by Anthony Kerrigan, in *Ficciones* (New York: Grove Press, 1962), p. 51; subsequent references in parentheses are to this source.

Christ to Louis Ferdinand Celine or James Joyce be a sufficient renovation of its tenuous spiritual counsels?" (p. 55)

The creation of an imaginary culture, rather than of a world or of a people, is at the center of "The Babylonian Lottery." Having left Babylon, the narrator is able to apprehend the strangeness of the culture of Babylon because, now removed from it, he realizes by contrast that it is strikingly different from the culture of the land in which he finds himself. He clearly sees that "the lottery froms a principal part of the reality" of the culture of Babylon.[3]

The story progresses through a history of the lottery—a cultural artifact which soon dominates the culture. It began when "barbers gave rectangular bits of bone ... in exchange for copper coins," and the "drawing" was held at noon; the winners "received ... silver minted coins" (p. 66). Lotteries of this sort did not succeed, however, for "they did not appeal to all faculties of men: only to their hope" (p. 66). As the lottery changed and grew in complexity, the group running it became known as "The Company" and attained an "all powerful position" replete with "ecclesiastical, metaphysical strength" (p. 66). The prizes of the lottery now influenced thinking to such an extent that when, for example, "a slave stole a crimson ticket ... which carried the right to have his tongue burned in the next drawing ... the criminal code fixed the same penalty for the theft of a ticket" (p. 67).

Eventually, the people of Babylon force The Company to become omnipotent. A system is establish whereby lots are drawn at intervals of seventy nights that determine "every man's fate" until the next drawing (p. 68). To assure that "prizes" might not be thought to come purely by "chance"—though the implication is that such was the case—The Company let it be known that it operated through "spies" and "astrologers" (p. 68). This revelation—whether true or false—led to a "juridico-mathematical" "conjecture" that "if the lottery is an intensification of chance, a periodic infusion of chaos into the cosmos, would it not be desirable for chance to intervene at all stages of the lottery and not merely in the drawing?" (p. 69)

Finally, the "customs" of Babylon have "become so thoroughly impregnated with chance," due to the power of The Company, whose agents are all secret, and whose existence is now denied, that scribes make intentional errors, books are purposely printed with variants in each copy, and "a buyer of a dozen amphora of Damascus wine will not be surprised if one of them contains a talisman or a viper" (p. 71). The end result of the lottery, says the narrator, is that "it is indifferently inconsequential to

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[3]Jorge Borges, "The Babylonian Lottery," trans. by Anthony Bonner, in *Ficciones* (New York: Grove Press, 1962), p. 65; subsequent references in parentheses are to this source.

affirm or deny the reality of the shadowy corporation, because Babylon is nothing but an infinite game of chance" (p. 72).

By means of this carefully constructed culture based upon a "game of chance," Borges causes the perceptive reader to contrast his own cultural view with that of the Babylonians. In fact, he brings off a rather neat fantastic satire directed at all cultures based upon the smug religious or philosophical assumption that for every effect there is a cause; the lottery is fate, whether it be understood as the Will of Allah, the Providence of Jehovah, or, paradoxically, Randomness personified. The reader is also compelled to stand in the same relationship to his culture as the Babylonian removed from Babylon stands in respect to his—at such a distance, so to speak, that the total landscape is seen. A cultural shock is experienced which causes one momentarily to reconsider his basic assumptions.

Tolkien's use of culture in "Farmer Giles of Ham" is not easily seen because it is so basic to the telling of the story.[4] The tale concerns the replacement of an historically dominant culture—represented by the King—by a culture—represented by Farmer Giles—that has long been subservient to it. The quest for the dragon is the mechanism which makes this replacement possible and, in fact, desirable, for through his bravery the farmer proves he is fit to be responsible for those gathered round him.

The story begins when a giant wanders into the neighborhood and begins doing damage. Although his neighbors seem incapable of action, Giles lets fly with his anachronistic blunderbuss. Deaf and weaksighted, the giant thinks that the bullets are stinging flies and high-tails if for the hills. When the king learns of Giles' exploits he sends him as a reward a sword named Tailbiter, famed as a dragon killer, and so made that it comes halfway out of its scabbard when there's a dragon in the vicinity. Of course, the king no longer believes in worms; in fact, his traditional Christman Eve dish of the tail of one of the beasts is now made of "cake and almond-paste" (p. 23).

All goes well until the giant tells some dragons of his adventure in that land of plenty whose perfection was spoiled only by stinging flies. Since he says nothing of knights, some of the younger worms think that they are "mythological," as they always supposed, while the older dragons think, "At least they may be getting rare ... far and few and no longer to be feared" (p. 25). A dragon named Chrysophylax Dives, "of an ancient and imperial lineage, and very rich," who, though "not over bold," was "mortally hungry," decides to try his luck in the territory of Ham (p. 25).

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[4]J. R. R. Tolkien, "Farmer Giles of Ham," in *The Tolkein Reader* (New York: Ballantine Books, 1966); subsequent references in parentheses are to this source.

ces in parentheses are to this source.

Chrysophylax has things his way for a time. The king is asked to send his knights, but since it is the end of the year and they have many banquets to attend and tourneys to manage they cannot get away. The situation becomes so desperate that at last Giles allows his neighbors to convince him that he, armed with Tailbiter, must face the dragon. When they meet, Chrysophylax thinks to make short work of the farmer—until he recognizes the magic sword. He tries to excape, but Giles runs him down and brings him to the village, where the good people would have killed him, had not the dragon beguiled them with promise of great reward if only they would set him free. Their greed aroused, they do just this, after making him swear a great oath on his honor to return within a few days with his treasure.

Of course, Chrysophylax has no intention of doing this. Meanwhile, the King hears of what has happened and, since his treasury is almost depleted, comes with his knights and claims all the dragon ransom for himself. As the days pass, King and people slowly realize the dragon has played them for fools. At last the king commands Giles to lead an expedition to make the dragon pay up or else. Accompanied by knights who prove in their aimless discussions of precedence their cultural remove from the reality of knighthood, Giles come upon Chrysophylax and singlehandedly forces him to make good on his promise and to transport the treasure on his scaly back. In the meanwhile, the King believes that the knights have all been killed, so he returns to his city; when he hears of Giles' conquest, he sends a note demanding that the treasure be handed over to him. Giles ignores this message and those that follow. The King at last gathers what knights he can find and marches to Ham to get what he feels is rightfully his.

During the intervening time, Chrysophylax has come to respect Giles. He stays in the vicinity and his domination by the farmer is much admired by the natives. Giles goes alone to confront the king. They meet on a bridge and Giles informs his majesty that he has no intention of giving him any of the treasurer. "Finding's keeping, and keeping's having," he says (p. 71). And when the King, losing his royal composure, cries out,"'Give me my sword!' ... forgetting his plural," Giles says, "'Give us your crown!' ... a staggering remark, such as had never before been heard in all the days of the Middle Kingdom" (p. 71). The King would attack, but the dragon, who has been in the river under the bridge, rises up and scares all but the King away. The King now offers to fight Giles in single combat, but the farmer declines, saying he has no desire to harm him. Now powerless, the King returns to his distant castle and Giles becomes the acknowledged ruler of the territory.

Political revitalization seems to be the subject of this fantastic story. The ulture represented by the King has ossified over the years and when put to test is found to be ineffectual. Giles represents a new man, one who by ue of his having been formed by a culture based upon facing and

solving the day to day problems of life, is capable of restablishing a rule that is at once firm yet fair, one that is enthusiastically received by its subjects. Thus a new culture replaces the old, though the trappings of the old remain.

A reader's understanding of a fantasy writer's stylistic use of culture to create verisimilitude and develop plot should enable him to appreciate more the subject that is being dealt with. By this I do not mean that that certain mystification of fantasy, which is so pleasing, will be removed, but rather that our pleasure will be increased by an aesthetic awareness. Such has been the case for me in regards to the work of Borges and Tolkien.

AN ALTERNATIVE APPROACH TO COST VARIANCE ANALYSIS

*by Frank M. Boozer**

Many students in the undergraduate cost accounting course have an unnecessary amount of difficulty in solving standard cost problems involving variance analysis, especially CPA and CMA exam level problems where incomplete information is presented. Conceptually and computationally, variance analysis is not difficult but can become complicated because of voluminous but incomplete data, relevant item identification and algebraic manipulation requirements. The students who have difficulties in computing variances concentrate on improving computational deficiencies and frequently compound the learning problem by failing to gain an understanding of critical underlying concepts, journal entry requirements and related theory.

After struggling with numerous cost students through this area of standard cost, I developed an analytical framework which has proven ideal for solving the traditional four variance standard cost problem, which is a favorite of professional exam writers. The model presented in this paper has been developed for analyzing variable cost elements only and therefore fixed cost and related variances will not be formally discussed. Student response to the model had been very good, for it provides a simple framework that the student can easily understand and use as a basic reference point for extensions of cost variance analysis.

Essentially the model is a tabular grid with horizontal and vertical headings. The headings are arranged in a particular format, and the known data are placed in the grid with each item having a unique position. Depending on what information is known, a particular combination of computations can be made to supply the missing data quickly. In illustrating the model, it is desirable to begin with a situation containing complete information. This illustration will be carried out through an analysis and discussion of direct labor with some general comments concerning direct material and variable overhead.

Direct Labor: Analysis and Discussion

Information given:

Standard Direct Labor Rate	$5.00
Actual Direct Labor Rate	$5.10
Direct Labor Hours Allowed	6500 hours
Direct Labor Hours Incurred	6100 hours

Required: Compute direct labor price and quantity variances and prepare the journal entry.

Basic Framework:

	Price	Quantity	Amount
Actual	5.10	6100	31,110
Standard	5.00	6500	32,500
Difference	.10	- 400	-1,390F
Variance	610U	-2000F	-1,390F

The product of price and quantity is the actual and standard amounts respectively.

The arrows indicate multiplication with the products expressed at the foot of the columns.

Journal Entry:

Work-In-Process	32,500	
DLPV	610	
DLQV		2,000
Wages Payable		31,110

At this point it is desirable to examine the model more closely, compare it to the traditional equation approach, and discuss some pedagogical extensions.

1. Obviously the difference in the price of labor has been the actual DL hours to compute the DL price variance. The difference in DL hours has been multiplied by the standard price to compute the DL quantity variance. This is nothing more than the equation approach with the components arranged in a different form. It is certainly important to demonstrate and emphasize this relationship to the students.

   Traditional Equations:
   DLPV=(AP - SP) AQ
   DLQV=(AQ - SQ) SP

2. By multiplying AP x AQ, we have computed the actual amount spent on Direct Labor. By multiplying SP x SQ, we have computed the amount that should have been spent on Direct Labor given the standards and the level of output. It is important that students realize that the information required for the journal entry is genreated within the model. However, if journal entries are not required, the above computations may not be necessary.

3. Students seem comfortable with the fact that the model is self-checking. The difference in the actual amount spent and the standard amount ($1390) is equal to the sum of the variances ($1390). This not only provides a mathematical check when the complete model is used but visually emphasizes the fact that the variances are the differences between actual and standard.

4. Students have little trouble in identifying variances as favorable or unfavorable becaus of the common sense notion that actual cost greater than standard is "not good" and vice versa; as a result signs can be ignored. However, if algebraic signs are used in the model, favorable variances will carry a negative sign and are journalized as credits. Unfavorable variances are positive and are debits. This information can be clearly conveyed through the model. The use of signs is optional.
5. Students quickly observe that the multiplication sequence is not symmetrical (the change in price is multiplied by the AQ whereas the change in quantity is multiplied by SP). This is an excellent lead into the introduction of the joint variance and a discussion as to why the quantity variance is usually kept pure and the joint variance is assigned to the price variance.

Direct Material

Most standard cost problems require that the direct labor price variance be computed at the time of purchase as opposed to the time of usage. The model as described produces the price variance based on usage; however, the model can be altered to produce either variance and certainly highlights the difference.

Variable Overhead

In analyzing variable overhead, it must be noted that the cost variances computed under "P" and "Q" are spending and efficiency variances, not price and quantity variances. This is a good time to emphasize to the students why this is so and to emphasize the significance of these variances.

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The real strength of the model lies in the fact that it provides a vehicle which can be used to solve cost variance problems rapidly where incomplete data are presented. Mathematical manipulations that can be obscure to students using the simultaneous equation approach become clear. This analysis is illustrated with the following set of partial data.

Information Given (Direct Labor, Direct Material, and Variable Overhead cost data):

Standard DL Rate per Hour $3.50
Standard VO/H Rate $1.75 per DLH
Actual VO/H $102,000
Standard DL Cost $220,500
Actual DL Hours 60,000
DL Price Variance $4,000 U
Standard Price Per Pound $6.10
Actual Price Per Pound $6.12
Actual Cost of Material Purchased and Used $122,400
375 Pounds of Material Were Issued in Excess of Production Standards

Solution (After the initial learning period, the components of the model can be abbreviated so as to shorten the solution time.):

DL:

	P	Q	$
A	3.5667	60,000	214,000
S	3.50	63,000	220,500
Δ	.0667	3,000	6,500F
V	4000U	10,500F	6,500F

DM:

	P	Q	$
A	6.12	20,000	122,400
S	6.10	19,625	119,712
Δ	.02	+375	2,688U
V	400U	2,288U	2,688U

V^O/H

	P	Q	S
A	1.70	60,000	102,000
S	1.75	63,000	110,250
Δ	.05	3,000	8,250F
V	3000F	5,250F	8,250F

The utilization of the model discussed in this paper has proven to be effective as a classroom instructional vehicle. More importantly, however, the approach provides a powerful solution oriented framework for quickly solving complex cost variance analysis problems, and is especially effective when incomplete data are given. Cost accounting instructors will find it useful to consider the model presented in this paper.

JEREMIAH CLEMENS: UNIONIST AS SOUTHERNER

*by John M. Martin**

In his book, *Mississippi: the Closed Society*, James W. Silver noted that there were parallels between the 1850's and the 1950's. Because orthodox views concerning state rights and race were so strongly held in the South, he said, the "voice of reason" was stilled, and moderates who favored less extreme positions either had to go along or be eliminated.[1] The career of Jeremiah Clemens in the 1850's demonstrates the correctness of Silver's viewpoint. As a supporter of the Compromise of 1850 and a critic of those who favored resistance to it, he was driven from political life and ostracized by the ruling element in Alabama.

Clemens, a cousin of Samuel Langhorne Clemens, was elected to the United States Senate in November, 1849, just in time to participate in debates over the issues that were settled by the Compromise of 1850.[2] In the early weeks of debate, he took an advanced position in defense of southern rights and was hailed by the southern rights group as one of their own.[3] Later, however, when it appeared that a reasonable compromise could be arranged, he moved to a moderate position and supported the exchange of Texas territory for $10,000,000 and creation of Utah and New Mexico as territories without any guarantees for slavery.[4]

In the meantime, opinion in Alabama had become polarized. Some, like Clemens, favored a reasonable compromise. Another vocal group, however, partly taking its cue from Robert Barnwell Rhett, a South Carolina extremist, insisted that Alabamians take an uncompromising stand. Reaction by this element to Clemens' position on the compromise measures was immediate. A Montgomery group quickly drew up resolutions denouncing the exchange of Texas territory for money and demanding that the 36°30' line be extended to the Pacific as a means of settling the question of slavery in the territories.[5] The Montgomery *Advertiser & State Gazette* immediately charged that Clemens had voted for the "buying of slave territory to make it free" because an abolition president had drawn the sword, and it hinted that Texas bonds had motivated Clemens. The paper suggested, further, that Clemens had been misled if he thought Utah and New Mexico would ever become slave states.[6] In public statements, Clemens vigorously denied that the

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[1]James W. Silver, *Mississippi: The Closed Society* (New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, 1966), 5-6.

[2]*Eufaula Democrat*, December 4, 1849.

[3]Mobile *Herald and Tribune*, March 14, 1850.

[4]Montgomery *Advertiser & State Gazette*, September 4, 1850.

[5]Montgomery *Advertiser & State Gazette*, September 11, 1850.

[6]Montgomery *Advertiser & State Gazette*, August 21, 1850.

Montgomery resolutions represented the views of more than one-tenth of the people of Alabama and insisted that the Texas settlement was sound.[7] The *Advertiser & State Gazette*, nevertheless, refused to accept his explanation and declared that it would be "miscreant" in its duty as a member of a free press if it failed to condemn an action fraught with "such mischief" for the country. It charged also that Clemens had insulted the members of the Montgomery group by raising questions about the validity of their resolutions. They had not meant for the resolutions to reflect public opinion, only their own views.[8] Criticisms by the *Advertiser & State Gazette* were echoed in the *Montgomery Atlas*, the *Franklin Democrat* and the Huntsville *Democrat*. In language familiar to hunters, the *Florence Gazette* noted in September that the "Disunionists, Tray, Blanche, Sweetheart, little dogs and all" were after Clemens.[9]

In a letter dated September 16, Clemens explained his actions in the recent Congress and defended his views concerning the Montgomery resolutions. He complained that words such as "submissionist," "coward," and "traitor" came too easily to the lips of his opponents and pleaded for more tolerance, more kindness, and more forbearance.[10] A sympathetic editor, in agreement with Clemens, suggested that fire-eaters were "attacking as submissionists" any who had taken "a common-sense position and saved the country from anarchy, civil war, bloodshed and fraternal strife." Such men, said the editor, could have earned praise and flattery if they had repudiated the Compromise.[11]

After remaining silent for several weeks, Clemens made a speech on November 4, 1850, defending his own actions, supporting the Compromise, and denouncing what he called disunion schemes. In response, the Huntsville *Democrat* charged that he had made an "eloquent *submission* speech," that he had glorified an "oppressive union," and that he had denounced loyal southern supporters as "agitators and disunionists." Although the speech had been seductive, it had been full of "errors and incnsistencies." It had been "crude, raw, and indigestible"; even the submissionists had made a face when they swallowed it.[12] Making similar charges, other southern rights newspapers found fault with Clemens[13] Somewhat stoically, Clemens wrote a friend at the time that he

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[7]Washington *Daily Union*, September 4, 1850.

[8]Montgomery *Advertiser & State Gazette*, September 4, 11, 1850.

[9]September 25, 1850

[10]Tuskegee *Macon Republican*, October 10, 1850.

[11]Tuskegee, *Macon Republican*, October 3, 1850.

[12]November 7, 21, 28, 1850.

[13]Mobile *Daily Advertiser*, January 14, 1851

had expected to be "unsparingly assailed and denounced in certain parts of the state" because of his actions in Congress and his recent defense of Compromise. In this expectation, he concluded, he had not been disappointed.[14]

During the short 1850-51 session of Congress, Clemens spoke out in favor of Compromise and incidentally commended President Millard Fillmore for his support of southern interests, particularly as related to enforcement of the Fugitive Slave Law. Commenting on the speech, the Huntsville *Democrat* suggested that Fillmore had made only empty promises and that Clemens was catering to the Whig Party. It also attacked him for signing a pledge not to support candidates for office unless they agreed to support the Compromise. The friendly Huntsville *Southern Advocate* chided the *Democrat* for its "malignant enmity" toward Clemens and speculated that the editors wanted to see him defeated in the coming senate election.[15]

Meanwhile, a new alignment of political parties had taken place in Alabama resulting in a Southern Rights Party and a Union Party. Concerned about re-election and about dangers of the "disunion" movement, Clemens made a speaking tour of Alabama on behalf of the Unionist cause during the summer of 1851. Following his speech at Tuscumbia, in which he supported the Compromise and warned against those who called secession a "right," an observer called the speech a "complete failure" and attacked him for defending a northern point of view and casting odium on supporters of real southern interests. The Huntsville *Democrat* questioned whether Clemens had any "lingering attachment" to state rights and charged that the "recreant" senator was trying to take Alabama over to the Whigs.[16] Following a Clemens speech at Talladega, an observer alleged that he was trying to convince the people of Alabama to accept a blind adoration of the word "union." He had harangued the Talladega audience for two hours with a speech made up of "submission, sophism, poetry, and some little candor."[17] Commenting about his speech in Montgomery, the *Montgomery Atlas* called it an excellent "free soil speech," more harmful to southern interests than thousands of speeches made by free soilers. It included, said the *Atlas*, a summary of all the "little contemptible paragraphs" from the submission presses for the past six months and was "especially abusive of South Carolina and the Southern Rights cause." Overall, it was "trash, trash, trash."[18] The *Advertiser &*

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[14]Montgomery *Tri-Weekly Journal*, December 23, 1850.

[15]Huntsville *Democrat*, March 20, April 3, 1850.

[16]Huntsville *Democrat*, June 26, 1851.

[17]Huntsville *Democrat*, August 7, 1851.

[18]Huntsville *Democrat*, July 31, 1851.

State Gazette charged that Clemens was "fully in the consolidationist harness" and that acceptance of his views would threaten southern property and the safety of southern firesides.[19] Subsequently, when Clemens made a speech in Huntsville in which he denounced those who were agitating against the Compromise settlement, the *Democrat* called him the "prime mover" of agitation and said that he was guilty of "special pleading, evasion, and the presentation of false issues."[20]

Despite the harsh criticism of Clemens and the Unionist movement, the Unionists won a majority in the Alabama General Assembly in the August, 1851, election, thus giving Clemens reason to believe that he would be reelected to the Senate in November. The opposition press, however, redoubled its attack in an attempt to defeat him. One newspaper noted a "vile stream of detraction" following the Unionist victory. Another pointed out that the partisan press was attacking Clemens with unusual "bitterness and rankness of malignancy and hatred." Clemens complained in September that Southern Rights supporters were treating him as a "personal enemy" rather than as a "political opponent." A "wretched minority," he complained, assumed to have a monopoly on "all the talents and decency in the state." Within this disunionist movement, however, there existed an element of "envy, malice, meanness, and cowardice which would damn any cause and drag down any party."[21] In a public letter dated October 10, Clemens alleged that attacks on him had resulted from his refusal to "take a seat at the council board of Disunion," not because of his support for a Whig President. After his refusal to join the Southern Rights cause in 1850, this group had subjected him to "invective, abuse, and systematical misrepresentation" without parallel in Alabama history.[22] The Montgomery *Daily Journal* agreed that Clemens was under attack because he had refused "to break up and resist the Compromise acts even to secession" and had fought to save the Union. The rabid attack of the secessionists, it predicted, could lead to Clemens' defeat for the Senate. In similar language, the *Talladega Republican* said that Clemens was suffering abuse because he had taken the side of his country and used his influence "with telling effect upon the minions of disunion." True to predictions, Southern Rights supporters were able to bring about postponement of the senate election until 1853 and insure Clemens' eventual defeat. Meanwhile, the Southern Rights group had secured the

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[19]July 16, 1851.

[20]Huntsville *Democrat*, July 31, 1851.

[21]Huntsville *Southern Advocate*, September 27, 1851; Huntsville *Democrat*, October 2, 1851; Montgomery *Weekly Journal*, October 31, 1851.

[22]Huntsville *Democrat*, October 23, 1851; Montgomery *Advertiser and State Gazette*, November 4, 1851.

support of a number of former Unionists and reorganized the Democratic Party.[23]

Commenting about these developments in a public letter, Clemens argued that the party had been reorganized under "secession auspices" and that it was largely controlled by that group. In its statement of purposes, moreover, the new party had ignored Andrew Jackson and had repudiated his views.[24] The Democratic press attacked Clemens for reopening old wounds and increasing division in the party. The *Montgomery Advertiser & State Gazette*, for example, called him a shipwrecked Democrat, part of a group of "prostitutes, renegades, and traitors."[25] His defenders, on the other hand, maintained that Clemens was under attack because of his effort "to keep out of the democratic creed the disunion projects of the Nashville Convention."[26]

In the meantime, Clemens became involved in a running verbal battle with Robert Barnwell Rhett, overall leader of the Southern Rights faction and recently elected senator from South Carolina. During debate over a senate resolution approving the compromise measures as a definitive settlement of the issues involved, Rhett spoke approvingly of such terms as "disunion" and "secession." Later, Clemens criticized Rhett's speech in language that was deliberately provocative, perhaps with the intent of goading Rhett into a duel.[27]

Instead, Rhett spent about two months consulting Clemens' enemies in Alabama and preparing for a major assault on him. After issuing a special invitation to the press to hear him, Rhett delivered an emotional speech in which he charged that Clemens was a submissionist who had painted the Compromise as a source of great blessings, called resisters traitors, and sullied the honor of the South. Clemens, he said, had gone over to submission "utter and entire" and had denounced others who did not bow to "an ignominious surrender." Although Clemens answered with another provocative speech, Rhett chose not to seek a duel because of his religious views.[28] Writing in support of Clemens, the New York *Commercial Register* noted that secessionists had made a target of him because he had led the Unionist movement in Alabama. Clemens, said the *Register*, represented southern feeling but with a national spirit; he was neither a

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[23]Montgomery *Daily Journal*, November 17, 22, 1851; Huntsville *Southern Advocate*, October 22, 1851; Huntsville *Democrat*, August 8, 1851.

[24]Washington *Daily Union*, January 31, February 3, 1852.

[25]February 10, 1852.

[26]Mobile *Daily Advertiser*, February 12, 1851.

[27]Huntsville *Southern Advocate*, January 21, 1852.

[28]Montgomery *Daily Journal*, March 5, 1852; Huntsville *Southern Advocate*, March 17, 1852.

sectionalist not a factionist. The *New York Advertiser* agreed that Clemens had "as much Southern feeling as any man in the South" but noted that this feeling was "tempered with a patriotic and national spirit and a love of peace." In Alabama, the *Grove Hill Herald* criticized the secessionists for their attempt to ruin Clemens' "political reputation," "blast his private character," and render him an "object of loathing and contempt," and the *Marshall Eagle* charged that "Secession Jacobites" were trying to bring about Clemens' "political ostracism."[29]

Although the newspaper attacks subsided during the latter part of 1852 and throughout 1853, Clemens' career was already ruined. Prior to the senatorial election in 1853, a critic wrote that he was unhorsed everywhere." This judgment proved true, for Clemens received only six votes in the contest for the senate seat in the General Assembly.[30]

Following his defeat, Clemens never again held an elective office. On one occasion, he ran for a seat in the state legislature but failed to secure election. During the next seven years, he wrote three novels and edited a newspaper. He wrote in 1860 that for ten years he had been widely denounced throughout the southern states as a "Submissionist," a regular "Union-Saver." As a union man, he said, he had battled for its preservation and had encountered "obloquy, reproach and the alienation of friends in its defense."[31]

Clemens emerged again in a significant political role when he campaigned in 1860 in support of John Bell and Edward Everett. As before, he tried to steer between the extremism of the Southern Rights group and the position taken by the national Democratic Party. Following Abraham Lincoln's victory, he opposed any "rash and desperate experiment" by Alabama that would stampede other states into secession and sought the calling of a convention of all southern states to consider alternatives. "The Union men of Alabama," he wrote a friend in November, "have a difficult and dangerous part to play... Our hands are in the lion's mouth, and we must get them out as easily as may be." Considering the existing state of emotions, he feared that "moderate counsels" would go unheeded.[32] He wrote another friend, "We have before

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[29]Huntsville *Southern Advocate*, March 24, April 21, 1852.

[30]John Bragg to Bolling Hall, September 8, 1853, Bolling Hall Papers, Alabama Department of Archives and History; Montgomery; Huntsville *Democrat*, December 8, 1853.

[31]Clemens to W. B. Wood, November 26, 1860, Huntsville *Southern Advocate*, December 5, 1860.

[32]Clemens to J. J. Crittenden, November 24, 1860, Crittenden Papers, Library of Congress.

us the double duty of preserving the Union, and of obtaining redress for grievances which undeniably exist, and security against other agressions we cannot fail to see are impending." Alabama, he said, must follow a "determined spirit of resistance," not one of "unconditional submission." Issues dividing the sections, he asserted, must be settled.[33]

Elected to the Alabama secessionist convention, Clemens led a minority group which supported an unsuccessful effort for the calling of a southern convention instead of immediate secession and for submission of the secession ordinance to the people of Alabama. After both efforts failed, he voted reluctantly for the Ordinance of Secession, explaining, correctly, that he had earlier promised to go along with the state.[34] Later, while others celebrated adoption of the Ordinance, he took no part and disconsolately wrote a friend about his feelings of sorrow when he saw the "old banner" of the Union coming down.[35] Nevertheless, he advised his friends that they should do nothing to "divide the people" of the state. Unfortunately, he said, failure of the North to offer concessions had left as alternatives "Submission without terms, or death by the halter."[36]

In March, Clemens was appointed Major-general of Alabama forces, a position he had earned because of earlier service in Texas and Mexico. With the outbreak of war, however, Alabama forces were mostly transferred to the Confederacy, and he was left with an empty honor. He was snubbed by Jefferson Davis and Leroy Pope Walker, Confederate Secretary of War. When he resigned his Alabama commission, they chose not to offer him a Confederate commission, either for personal reasons or his ill health.[37]

Incensed by this treatment, the increased demands of the Confederate government, and harassment and indignities suffered by Unionists, Clemens began to have second thoughts about his loyalties in 1862. When the Tennessee Valley was occupied by Union forces in the spring of that year, he made no effort to escape and made overtures to the Union commander to "learn unofficially in what way the existing controversy might be ended." He sought also to present the cause of southern Unionists in Washington but was denied permission on the grounds that he and other Unionists could do more good for the United States if they remained in the

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[33]Clemens to Wood, November 26, 1860, Huntsville *Southern Advocate*, December 5, 1860.

[34]William Russell Smith, *The History and Debates of the Convention of the People of Alabama* (Spartanburg: Reprint Company, 1975), 28-29, 77-80, 116-117.

[35]Clemens to G _____, January 11, 1861, *Southern Advocate*, January 16, 1861.

[36]Clemens to Blanton Duncan, n.d., Montgomery *Weekly Mail*, February 13, 1861.

[37]Montgomery *Weekly Mail*, January 18, March 15, 1861; Montgomery *Daily Advertiser*, March 20, 1861; Horace Greely, *The American Conflict: a History of the Great Rebellion in the United States of America* (Hartford: Case and Company, 1865), 1, 632; Montgomery *Weekly Advertiser*, April 13, 1864.

South.[38] His return to Unionism subjected Clemens to public and physical abuse. Noting that he had "gone over to the enemy," one Alabama newspaper commented that nothing else could have been expected, considering "his antecedents."[39] When Clemens was accused of suggesting the incarceration of several ex-Confederates, another paper reported, an opponent of "Yankeeing Southerners" beat him and left his face "frightfully disfigured."[40] Still another paper charged that Clemens had sounded the "depths of turpitude" and reported that he had been beaten "within an inch of his life" by a Confederate sympathizer.[41]

While Federal forces occupied the Huntsville area, Clemens worked with Union officers, entertained them in his home, and advised them about policies. For such activities, he and other Unionists suffered when not under direct protection of Federal forces. In his novel, *Tobias Wilson*, which was based on his experiences, Clemens wrote that no union man's property was safe two miles from an inhabited town, for Confederate raiders were "thieves and murderers of the most inexcusable kind." He had, he wrote, been threatened and had lost 35 mules, 4 horses, all his hogs, sheep and cattle, and large quantities of corn and provisions.[42]

Because of Lincoln's generous offer of reconstruction in 1863 and Alabamians' disillusionment with the Richmond government, restoration to the Union seemed possible by early 1864. On March 5, Clemens presided over a meeting in Huntsville called to demonstrate sentiment in favor of reunion. When the meeting was not well attended, a second one was held on March 13. One of the principal speakers, Clemens noted that the purpose of the meeting was to encourage the Governor to take steps to bring about repeal of the Ordinance of Secession. If he did not respond favorably, the people could assemble and act for themselves. Alabama, he said, had been taken out of the Union by falsehood, fraud, and crime. The people had been promised sound money and protection for slaves, state rights and personal liberty, but they had received none of these. Conscription laws forced men with ten starving children to serve but permitted those with twenty slaves to escape army service. "Thank God," he declared, the Confederacy would not succeed.[43]

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[38] *The War of the Rebellion: a Compilation of the Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1883), Series I, Vol. X, Pt. 2, O. M. Mitchell to E. M. Stanton, May 6, 1862, 167; Mitchell to Stanton, May 8, 1862, 174; P. H. Watson to Mitchell, May 8, 1862, 174-175. Hereinafter cited as *Official Records*.

[39] *Selma Reporter*, June 27, 1862.

[40] *Clarke County Democrat*, October 30, 1862.

[41] *Mobile Advertiser and Register*, May 24, October 25, 1862.

[42] Montgomery *Weekly Advertiser*, April 13, 1864; Jeremiah Clemens, *Tobias Wilson, a Tale of the Great Rebellion* (Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1865), 303-304.

[43] *Philadelphia Inquirer*, March 24, 26, 1864.

Alabama newspapers questioned Clemens' views, his motives, and his character. One newspaper said that he had gove over "body and breeches" to the Yankees, that he had probably been iin his "full normal condition of inebrity" when he delivered the Huntsville speech.[44] Another charged that his senses had long since been blunted by "bad whiskey and low company." Perhaps, it suggested, Clemens was trying to get from Lincoln that attention which Davis had denied him. Nobody was surprised by any statements made by this "debauched and profligate politician," who had been put forward to vilify his own people and start the process of reunion. Clemens, said the paper, probably expected to be chosen reconstruction governor by Lincoln.[45] Summing up the feeling of many, a Confederate commander in the field called Clemens "that Arch Traitor."[46]

Later in 1864, Clemens left Alabama and went to Philadelphia. Although he probably went there to secure treatment for his failing eyesight and to supervise publication of *Tobias Wilson*, an Alabama editor suggested that his change of residence was "no doubt owing to a conviction on his part" that affairs in Alabama were such as to make his presence in the state "rather uncomfortable."[47]

In September, Clemens wrote from Philadelphia that Southerners had allowed themselves to be deceived by "selfish demagogues and unprincipled political leaders." They had been "long enough hugging a despotism to their bosoms and calling it independence." Their property had been "seized by the confederate government"; their fields had been "laid waste by a reckless soldiery," and their children had been "dragged from their firesides and sacrificed in the hectacombs to the God of War." Still, they had not protested because one murmur was sufficient to "excite a suspicion of their patriotism" and bring with it "robbery, extortion, insult and injury in every form."[48]

In October, Clemens wrote a letter to a friend in Alabama which was later published in bound form. Confederate leaders, he said, had led Southerners "from the surrender of one right to another—from independence, prosperity, and happiness, to misery, humiliation, and slavery." They had promised that the rights of states would be "scrupulously regarded," individual liberty protected, and freedom of speech and press guaranteed. Instead, they had trampled the rights of

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[44] *Clarke County Journal*, April 21, 1864.

[45] Montgomery *Weekly Advertiser*, April 27, May 4, 1864.

[46] *Official Records*, Series I, Vol. XXXII, Pt. 3, James H. Clanton to T. H. Watts, April 5, 1864, 750.

[47] *Clarke County Journal*, July 14, 1864.

[48] Philadelphia *Daily Evening Bulletin*, September 13, 1864.

states underfoot and had seized property and persons without regard to law. If Jefferson Davis wanted soldiers, Clemens declared, he sent "his own minions to run down and catch hapless citizens." If he wanted provisions, he sent out a press gang to "rob at will." No proprietor of a newspaper, said he, dared publish sentiments favorable to reunion, and friends of the Union spoke only in whispers or retired to back rooms. Neither states nor individuals had rights "save at the will of the Dictator" who controlled the Confederacy. Only the "blind and pliant tools of the Autocrat at Richmond" had a hopeful future in the South. If the rebellion succeeded, "instant robbery and merciless proscription of the old Union Men," would follow. Already, he had suffered personally as a member of that "proscribed class."[49]

Speaking in support of Abraham Lincoln in November, 1864, before a Philadelphia audience, Clemens said that Jefferson Davis would not accept peace without "independence for the South and humiliation of the North." A supreme despotism controlled the South. Whatever Southerners thought, they were "as powerless as a child in the grasp of a giant." If southern editors were one-tenth as critical of Davis as the northern press was critical of Lincoln, decared Clemens, they would regret that "ever a type was manufactured." Northerners, he warned, should vote for Lincoln and not run the risk of electing a peace candidate.[50]

Still concerned about the fate of Unionists, Clemens wrote President Andrew Johnson in April, 1865, only a few days defore his death, warning the President not to put his faith in old Confederate leaders in Alabama. When they were in power, he said, they had "heaped obloquy on Union citizens" and denounced them as "traitors." They had oppressed Unionists "when treason was in the ascendant" and should not be allowed to hold power now that "the Union cause" was triumphant. If he were asked to serve in office, he did not want secessionists as his colleagues; if he were an ordinary citizen, he did not want them as his masters.[51]

Clemens lived long enough to experience the Union victory, but he did not live to take part in Reconstruction. He had suffered much: political exile and ostracism in the pre-war period, and harassment, loss of property, and exile during the war years.

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[49] *Letter from the Hon. Jere. Clemens* (n. p., 1864), Clemens to _____, October, 1864, 3-15.

[50] Philadelphia *Daily Evening Bulletin*, November 4, 1864.

[51] Clemens to Andrew Johnson, April 21, 1865, Johnson Papers, Library of Congress; Philadelphia *Daily Evening Bulletin*, May 23, 1865.

THE SOCIAL DESTRUCTION OF REALITY

by Deborah I. Offenbacher and Constance H. Poster***

Introduction

In *The Reality of Ethnomethosology*, Mehan and Wood [1] take issue with Alfred Schutz'[2] analysis of "multiple realities", particularly with his concept of the "paramount reality" of everyday life. Using the first person singular for what, we presume, is their joint opinion, Mehan and Wood observe:

> Schutz argues that other realities exist, but that they derive from the paramount reality . . . My view of reality is different. I do not wish to call one or another reality paramount. It is my contention that every reality is equally real.

In a previous paper (offenbacher, 1977)[3] we have similarly argues that alternate realities may be equally real. Yet this observation need not contradict Schutz' position. What Schutz sought to explore was not the nature of reality as it may be defined by philosophers or ethnomethodologists, but reality as it is "taken for granted" by the majority of people in modern society. Despite the recent interest in new religious and quasi-religious movements, altered states of consciousness, paranormal phenomena and the like, the reality of everyday life still appears to be the paramount reality for most Americans. In fact, one of the odd features of contemporary science fiction is the tendency to project a mirror image of the reality onto the inhabitants of the far reaches of the galaxies.

In the light of the above, we would suggest that the respective positions of Schutz vs. Mehan and Wood do not represent mutually exclusive alternatives but rather an interesting paradox. Though all realities are equally real, most of our contemporaries appear to take if for granted that the reality of everyday life is not only the paramount reality but the only "real reality" there is. Whatever need for transcedence may exist in the face of that paramount reality is, in the apt phase of Peter Berger[4] only "a rumor of angels".

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[1]Mehan, Hugh and Houstin Wood, 1975. *The Reality of Ethomethodology*. New York, John Wiley.

[2]Schutz, Alfred, 1962. *Collected Papers Vol. I: The Problems of Social Reality*. The Hague, Martinus Nijhoff.

[3]Offenbacher, D.I., 1977. "A Neglected Dimension of the Sociology of Knowledge: Perspectives on the Non-Rational." Paper presented at the first annual meeting of the Association of Humanists Sociologists. New York, Spring 1977.

[4]Berger, Peter L., 1969. *A Rumor of Angels*. Garden City, N.Y. Doubleday.

To explore some of the implications of that paradox, we turn to a basic weakness in the treatment of reality in both Schutz and Mehan and Wood, and, indeed, in sociology at large. Whatever the relative status of different realities, no reality is simply a social contruct that arises *ex nihilo* in the social process. As pointed out by Hannah Arendt[5] (in a posthumously published article) there is a "feeling of realness" which belongs to our biological apparatus". Yet, as Dennis Wrong[6] reminded us more than fifteen years ago sociologists tend to forget that "in the beginning there is the body." As a result, we tend to produce not only an oversocialized conception of man", as Wrong asserts, but an oversocialized conception of reality.

The Dialetic of Nature and Society

In *The Social Construction of Reality,* Berger and Luckmann refer to the "organismic presuppositions and limitations" of the sociology of knowledge which derive from the dialectic between nature and society":

> This dialectic is given in the human condition and manifests itself anew in each human individual . . . Externally, it is a dialetic between the individual animal and the social world. Internally, it is a dialectic between the individual's biological substratum and his socially produced identity.[7]

While we fully concur with the above formulation (which reflects Mead's distinction between the biological foundation and the "I" and the social nature of the "Me") we would suggest that the internal dialetic of nature and society is not only a matter of "the resistance of the biological substratum to social moulding" (Berger and Luckmann 1966:167). The process of socialization itself and the phenomena we summarize under the heading particular characteristics of the human brain and of the central nervous system. Indeed, the "world openess" of man, this uniquely human dilemma which Gehlen sees as the foundation of instutionalization (Berger and Kellner, 1965)[8] may well be rooted in the number and connectivity of the neurons in the association areas of the human brain (Rose 1973:144).[9]

There is thus a second dimension of the dialectic between nature and society which is essential to the sociology of knowledge: the dialectic between mental activities as they derive from the universal biological properties of the human organism and the socio-cultural dimensions of

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[5]Arendt, Hannah, 1977. "Reflections (Thinking Part I)" *The New Yorker,* November 21, pp. 56-140.

[6]Wrong, Dennis, 1962. "The Oversocialized Conception of Man in Modern Sociology". *American Sociological Review*, 26:183-193.

[7]Berger, Peter I., and Thomas Luckmann, 1966. *The Social Construction of Reality.* Garden City, N.Y., Doubleday. pp. 165, pp. 167, pp. 24, pp.1.

[8]Berger, Peter I., and Hansfried Kellner, 1965. "Arnold Gehlen ans the Theory of Institutions". *Social Research,* 32:110.

[9]Rose, Steven, 1973. *The Conscious Brain.* New York, Alfred Knoft. pp. 144.

human thought and experiences as they are mediated by language. The psychologist Jerome R. Bruner observes:

> Most of what has emerged from studies of Africans, Eskimos, aborigines and other groups, shows that the **same** basic mental functions are present in adults in **any** culture. What differs is the development of these functions: what is considered as appropriate strategy suited to the situation and task . . . The investigation of many psychologists and anthropologists confirm that there is little that is remarkably different about underlying mental processes in different cultures. Differences occur only in the way they are combined and used in thought, in categorization and in handling language. (**emphasis in original.**)[10]

The neglect of the universal biological foundations of mental processes as a vital organismic presupposition for the social construction of reality is not surprising if one remembers how heavily the work of Berger and Luckmann relies on the phenomenological perspective of Edmund Husserl. In Husserl's writings, knowledge is treated as an achievement of acts and operations of consciousness independent of their physiological base. "The transcendental study of consciousness," notes Husserl, "does not mean nature-research and may not presuppose this as a premise, since from its transcendental standpoint Nature is in principle placed within the brackets."[11] Yet if we deal with the sociology of knowledge in terms of a dialectic between nature and society or between the biological and mental dimensions of man (a position which derives not from Husserl but from the ideas of Mead and Marx incorporated in the work of Berger and Luckmann) the biological foundations of mental operations can no longer be bracketed.

The problems arising from a failure to consider the biological substratum of human knowledge become evident in the way in which Berger and Luckmann deal with "finite provinces of meaning":

> Compared to the reality of everyday life, other realities appear as finite provinces of meaning, enclaves within the paramount reality marked by circumscribed meanings and modes of experience . . . This is evident from the illustrations already given, as in the reality of dreams or that of theoretical thought. Similar "communications" take place between the world of everyday life and the world of play . . . The Theatre provides an excellent illustration of such playing on the part of adults.[7]

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[10]Bruner, Jerome S., 1978. "Review of A.R. Lurie's Cognitive Development: Its Cultural and Social Foundations", *Human Nature*, January, pp. 84-90.

[11]Husserl, Edmund, 1963. *Ideas*. New York, Collier Books. pp.141.

Seen from the perspective of everyday life, that is, from the world as taken for granted in contemporary Western society, these observations are valid. Yet from the perspective of the universal biological foundations of mental activity, the analysis of Berger and Luckmann neglects an important distinction. Compared to the reality of everyday life, finite provinces of meaning are equally contingent, recognized as real only as long as we are directly engaged in them. Yet they originate in different ways and are not equally subject to modification by human intentionality and purpose.

The theatre as a "finite province of meaning" is a sociocultural phenomenon. It is a product of human intentionality and we could conceivably eliminate it by declaring it illegal; placing sanctions on playwrights, actors, audiences, etc. The memory of our dreams, on the other hand, is rooted in spontaneous processes. We cannot interfere with these biological rhythms without the use of means which —in the long run— would de detrimental to the human organism. Similarly, while it is possible to manipulate the content of dreams to some extent (Witkin: 1969)[12], censorship of dreams would be a far more difficult undertaking than the censorship of theatrical productions.

In other words, "multiple realities" or "finite provinces of meaning", as suggested by Schutz or Berger or Luckmann, represent a mental topography, a map of different regions of reality or meaning which we inhabit at different times. However, when we approach the same phenomenon from the perspective of the dialectic of nature and society, this pluralistic structure gives way to an ongoing process of confrontation between our biological sense of realness and the social construction of reality.

Biology and Reality

According to the Thomas theorem, what people define as real will be real in its consequences. Similarly, the reactions of non-human organisms to their environment reflects a sense of biological realness, that is, an awareness of something external to the organism to which that behavior is a response. If we accept Berger and Luckmann's definition of reality as "a quality appertaining to phenomena that we recognize as having a being independent of our own volition" (Berger and Luckmann 1966:1)[7] we might extend the Thoman theorem to other forms of life by the proposition that "those features of the environment to which an organism responds are real for that organism."

A biological sense of realness is thus rooted in the physiological equipment of all forms of life and no organism that depends for its survival

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[12]Witkin, Herman A., 1969. "Influencing Dream Content", in Milton Kramer, ed.: *Dream Psychology abd the New Biology of Dreaming.* Springfield, Ill. Charles C. Thomas.

on interaction with the environment can exist without it. To the amoeba, exhibiting "avoidance behavior", the obstacle eliciting that response is as real as is the stock market report to the investor rushing to the phone to speak to his broker. However, since a biological sense of realness is dependent on the nature of the sense organs and other anatomical structures through which the relevant information is gathered and processed (including the brain and central nervous system), the reality of man is not the same as the reality of the amoeba. In fact, as the biologist Jakob von Uexkull has pointed out, the anatomical variations from species to species indicate that there may be as many realities as there are species on this planet.* (quoted in Cassirer 1944:23-24)[13]

Man's experience of reality reflects the complexity of his neurological equipment and of the variety of mental operations of which it is capable. In contrast to the amoeba, man confronts not only phenomena in the world around him but the symbolic creations of his own mind. In fact, he can externalize his own sensations or mental operations to the point where they are experienced with a biological sense of realness as forces in the world around him; a phenomenon which has led Julian Jaynes[14] to some speculative but highly interesting theories about the nature of the ancient gods. Moreover, due to man's capacity for symbolic thought, he can postulate the existense of phenomena or entities which he considers to be real (such as spirits or certain subatomic particles) even though they are not presented to him through the evidence of his senses. In short, not only the external environment but any conceivable product of human thought or imagination can appear to have a being independent of our own volition and thus become a phenomenon the reality of which may have to be determined.

The complexity of such determinations is compounded by what Konrad Lorenz has termed "a quantum jump in evolution": the emergence of reflective consciousness. "Reflection, man's greatest discovery in the history of the human mind," writes Lorenz, "was immediately followed by his gravest mistake--that of doubting the reality of the external world."[15] Hence, the fundamental difference between the reality of the amoeba and reality as experienced by the philosopher Rene Descartes, is not that the latter could conclude **cogito ergo sum,** but that he could doubt his own existence in the first place. In that sense, while realness is an experience grounded in the biological heritage of all living organisms, the possibility of "unrealness" is most likely a unique product of the complexity of man's central nervous system which makes reflective consciousness possible.

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[13]Cassirer, Ernst, 1944. *An Essay on Man.* New Haven, Yale University Press, pp. 23-24.

[14]Jaynes, Julian, 1977. *The Origin of Consciousness In The Breakdown Of The Bicameral Mind.* Boston, Houghton Mifflin.

[15]Lorenz, Konrad, 1977. *Behind the Mirror: Search For a Natural History of Human Knowledge.* New York, Harcourt Brace and Jovanovich. pp. 14.

The biological substratum of the social construction of reality thus provides for a variety of mental operations which, in their juxtaposition, constitute a quandary for the human knower that has no parallel in the animal world:

1) the experience of biological realness, that is, the sheer giveness of sensory experience which man shares with other forms of life;

2) man's capacity to externalize his own sensory or mental processes;

3) man's capacity to postulate the existence of phenomena which cannot be verified by sensory experience and might even be contrary to the evidence of his senses;

4) the capacity to redefine reality through attributing different meanings to the same events by changing the meanings of symbols;

5) the capacity to reflect on all of the foregoing and to question their reality, that is, to wonder whether any of these phenomena exist anywhere independently of the human mind.

Just as the biological fact of man's "world openness" to which we referred earlier, calls for the structuring and routinization of social life through the process of institutionalization, so the complexity of the biological substratum of human experience and thought calls for adjudication through the social construction of reality and a socially shared stock of reliable knowledge. In this process, social determinations of fact and reality--which are but products of the human mind--are called upon to pass judgment not only with respect to external reality but with regard to the products of human thought as well. Hence, as noted earlier, the social construction of reality, is not a creation **ex nihilo,** but a process of adjudication in which the human brain produces both the prisoner in the dock and the jurist on the bench.

Modes of Knowing

One of the basic departures of quantum physics from the classical model of science derives from the proposition that we cannot know the world independently of man the knower. If that is correct, then human knowledge--the end product of the encounter between the knower and the known--cannot be evaluated apart from the qualities which the human subject brings to the engagement with the object of knowledge. These qualities include not only a host of culturally-derived assumptions and presuppositions but also the biological substratum of those mental processes which make human knowledge possible.

The complexity of that substratum, which we tried to indicate above, suggests that there must be not one, but a number of different ways of knowing, Knowledge derived from a biological sense of realness, for example, is not the same as knowledge derived from reflection or what the philosopher, Ernst Cassirer, terms "the theoretical world view." Cassirer

notes:

> Whatever we call existence or reality is given to us at the outset in definite forms of pure experience... Though the theoretical world view has in many ways modified this foundation and overlaid it, so to speak, with formations of a different mode and origin, it has by no means displaced them.[16]

The relationship between these different levels or modes of experience is not only one of modifications and overlays but often a temporal sequence of contradictory modes of knowing. For example, in pure experience or with a biological sense of realness, (as we have been using the term), I may know that my grandfather is sitting in his accustomed chair near the fireplace. Upon reflection, however, I will know that I have experienced a hallucination since my grandfather died long ago. Similarly, in our dreams, we may know that we are walking the streets of Paris. Upon waking reflection, however, we will know with equal certainty that this could not have been the case.

Philosophers have long pondered this question of the relationship between what is given to awareness in a state of pure experience or a biological sense of realness, and what we designate as knowledge in ordinary language. Unfortunately, within the limits of this paper, we cannot review the history of these philosophical speculations which have involved such polarities as intuitive vs. derivative knowledge; immediate vs. mediate knowledge; tacit vs. effective knowledge; subjective vs. objective knowledge, etc. In the last analysis, a Merleau-Ponty has pointed out the problem of knowledge is not a component of the act of knowing. It is a judgment made by consciousness in its reflection upon itself.

For the philosopher, the reflective judgment which determines what shall or shall not be termed knowledge relates to such universal questions as the nature of consciousness and truth. Yet the sociologist has to face the fact that what is considered knowledge in one society (on whatever grounds) may not be so considered in another. We have, therefore, chosen to use two terms which respectively reflect man's universal sense of biological realness and the historical variability of intersubjectively validated bodies of knowledge. We have termed the first "spontaneous personal knowledge" and the second "socially validated knowledge."

The term socially validated knowledge refers to that body of shared beliefs, assumptions or facts which are accepted as true by society at large or by any of its subcultures. By spontaneous personal knowledge, on the other hand, we refer to any recognition of distinct and meaningful patterns which we take for granted on no other authority or evidence but the fact that they

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[16]Cassirer, Ernst, 1957. *The Philosophy of Symbolic Forms: Vol. 3.* New Haven, Yale University Press. pp. 62.

are clearly present to our awareness. Such patterns may be stimulated by sense impressions such as the image of a tree or a familiar voice; or they may be related to internal stimuli such as dreams or hallucinations. In either case, what concerns us here is not their origin, but the fact that these visual or auditory patterns are meaningful and real while attended to.

In and of itself, spontaneous personal knowledge is neither true not false, real or hallucinatory, rational or irrational, in the customary sense of these terms. The concept of spontaneous personal knowledge claims no more than that this perception, this idea, or this premonition is present to our awareness and that it presents itself without any intention or reflection on our part. It is non-rational not because it is not in accord with reason (which it may or may not be depending on the individual case) but because reason was not involved in its production. Hence, any statement concerning what we experienced as spontaneous personal knowledge can be false only if we ourselves misrepresent that experience. All other standards of reality or truth are irrelevant in this context.

Once we reflect upon it or relate it to others, spontaneous personal knowledge does, of course, become subject to social validation and to tenets of socially constructed realities. Moreover, such standards of validation may be internalized to the point where they act as gatekeepers, that is, where they affect the probability that certain autonomous mental processes or their manifestations will penetrate into consciousness. For example, while from a physiological point of view, dreaming is a universal human trait, the tendency to recall these nocturnal mentations seems positively correlated with the value placed on dreams by a given culture or subculture. Similarly, we would expect hallucinations to be more frequent in societies which encourage communications with the supernatural. Yet socially constructed realities and the tenets of social validation enter not only in to the frequency with which certain phenomena are experienced but into their content as well. Christian mystics are unlikely to have visions of guardian spirits as we find them among certain Indian tribes and the dream reports of patients tend, over time, to reflect the interpretative scheme of the psychoanalyst.

The content of spontaneous personal knowledge is thus subject to transformations and overlays derived from the social and historical n of the knower. Yet its formal properties, what we might call its cognitive style, is not a product of culture but of the universal biological substratum of mental activity. This distinction between the content and form of different types of mental operations is significant for our understanding of the relationship between spontaneous personal knowledge and the social construction of reality because it is often the cognitive style rather than the content which makes for the difference between sanity and madness. However, it is only with recent advances in neurobiology that these formal stylistic properties of different types of mentations have been linked to their physiological base.

The Languages of the Mind

In our common sense understanding of mental activity, we tend to view mental operations as products of human intentionality. We conceive of our minds as active while we are purposefully engaged in thought, and is inactive while we are unaware of being so engaged. However, the current literature in neurobiology and neurochemistry, the study of altered states of consciousness, and the new biology of dreaming, suggests that we must conceive of mental operations as a continuous process which oscillates between different physiological configurations along a natural biorhythm. "The brain is following its own laws," writes the philosopher Suzanne K. Langer. "It is actively translating experiences into symbols in fulfillment of a basic need to do so. It carries on a constant process of mentation."[17] Similarly, the psychologist, Rosalind D. Cartwright observes that mental activity "appears to be continuous throughout the twenty-four hour day cycle although the language by which it is carried forth differs in different states."[18]

This perspective suggests that there is a continuous base line of autonomous mental activity to which organisms return when not engaged in scanning or acting upon their environment, or more generally, in that state of focal awareness which we term thinking. Some of these autonomous mental operations are available to retrospective review by reflective consciousness through the memory of our fantasies, dreams, hallucinations and the like. Others remain forever outside the reach of reflection though their influence may occasionally become apparent in intuition, slips of the tongue, a face or a tune we may suddenly recall without any apparent reason, and similar phenomena. Yet irrespective of what can be retrieved in reflection or seeps of its own accord through the highly permeable boundaries between consciousness and the unconscious, it appears that mental activity is continuous in one form or other and that the shifting patterns of its formal properties or "languages" derive from different physical configurations or "brain states." The latter, in turn, may depend on such factors as degrees of alertness, sensory control, overstimulation, sensory deprivation, the use of drugs, other chemical imbalances or damages to brain structures, etc. In this context, conscious thought may be seen as a kind of "override system" by which focal attention takes command of the ongoing stream of mental activity and subjects it to control of our intentions and purposes. However, conscious and unconscious process need not be mutually exclusive. The mind's capacity for "parallel processing" can accomodate more than one language

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[17]Langer, Susan I., 1957. *Philosophy In a New Key*. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, pp. 41-42.

[18]Cartwright, Rosalind S., 1969. "Dreams As Compared To Other Forms of Fantasies", in Milton Kramer, ed.: *Dream Psychology and the New Biology of Dreaming*. Springfield, Ill. Charles C. Thomas. pp. 369.

at a time through the different channels, and our fantasies may proceed together with the task at hand.

What we term rational thought is thus only one of the different "languages of the mind" and it, too, depends on a particular physiological constellation. However, as noted earlier, the physiological substratum determines only the form and not the content of our mental activities. To illustrate this point, we offer the following summary from a paper by the psychologist, Arthur J. Deikman[19] (with few points added from a related paper by Julian Silverman)[20] which contrasts two "languages of the mind": the first, the equivalent to the mode of knowing which derives from reflective consciousness and focal awareness; the second, more in line with what we termed a biological sense of realness. In this latter case, however, the mode of awareness which Deikman describes is achieved intentionally rather than spontaneously and the resulting form or cognitive style represents a rather exceptional type of "pure experience."

Reflective cnsciousness or the "active" mode of awareness is characterized by such physiological traits as increased baseline muscle tension; greater reliance on the striate muscle system; and a predominance of beta waves in brain functioning. It is a state geared towards active manipulation of the world and domination of the environment through such characteristics as focal attention; object based logic; heightened boundary perception; and the dominance of formal characteristics over the sensory. In other words, mentations tend to be focused, rational, analytic, engaged in discursive logic, more concerned with the specific than the universal properties of phenomena, and more interested in their meaning and usefulness than their sensory qualities. Thinking is structured in terms of cause and effect relationships, and there is a sense of being in control of one's mental processes and a readiness to shift from one object or task to another as need arises.

In contrast, the "receptive" mode of awareness in which reality is perceived in a state of meditation, is dominated by the sensory-perceptual rather than the muscular system; baseline muscle tension in decreased' and brain activity tends towards alpha waves. The cognitive style of this modality of awareness is more diffusely attuned to the environment; boundary lines between phenomena tend to be attenuated; and there is often a sense of merging with a particular object of meditation or the universe at large. Sensory impressions dominate over formal analytic perceptions and there is little articulation of ego boundaries. Time, space, causality and other categories of reflective consciousness lose their power

[19]Deikman, Arthur J., 1973. "Biomodal Consciousness" and "Deautomation and the Mystic Experience", in Robert E. Orenstein, ed.: *The Nature of Human Consciousness*. New York, Viking Press. pp. 67-86 and 216-233.

[20]Silverman, Julian, 1968. "A Paradigm For The Study of Altered States of Consciousness", *British Journal of Psychiatry*. 146;1201-1218.

to structure the perception of reality. Incongruities and opposites may co-exist without any logical conflict and there is a sense of losing or relinquishing control, an attitude of "letting it" rather than "making it." There is often a heightened barrier to ordinary stimuli and increased responsiveness to stimuli previously blocked from awareness. Body images may change and scanning of the environment becomes passive and relational rather than active, analytic and segmental.

Homo sociologicus, as conceived by the sociologist, is conversant with only one of the "languages of the mind": reflective consciousness, or what Deikman terms the "active mode of awareness." This is not surprising since social action is central to the subject matter of sociology. Yet other idioms of the mind as we find them reflected in fantasies, intuition, hallucinations, or the memory of our dreams are also more than random firings of activated neurons. They may be alien to the discursive structure of our everyday thought and language because they originate in a different physiological state; yet they are not a tale told by an idiot. In fact, many artists and scientists have reported that after intense preoccupation with certain problems, a solution was suggested by a dream or seemed to present itself out of nowhere during a walk in the woods or a ride on a trolley car.

Apparently, in these cases, a problem which had been temporarily abandoned by reflective awareness continued to be processed in a different "language."

It is an unfortunate aspect of Freud's brilliant heritage that he devaluated what was his greatest gift to Western civilization: the rediscovery of those alternative languages of the mind which he summed up under the heading of "primary processes." Despite or because of his pioneering work in the exploration of the unconscious (that dominion of the mind least subject to rationality) Freud saw man's best hope in the "dictatorship of reason." However, half a century later, the anthropologist Gregory Bateson, observed:[21]

> In the cliche system of Anglo-Saxons, it is commonly assumed that it would be somehow better if what is unconscious were made conscious. Freud, even, is said to have said, "Where id was, there ego shall be," as thought such an increase in conscious knowledge and control would be both possible and, of course, an improvement. This view is the product of an almost totally distorted epistomology and a totally distorted view of what sort of thing a man, or any other organism is.

In the context of this paper, the question is not whether the unconscious should be made conscious, but what happens when it presents itself to

[21]Bateson, Gregory, 1972. *Steps Towards An Ecology of Mind.* San Francisco, Chandler. pp. 136.

consciousness spontaneously through fantasies, intuition, the memory of our dreams, hallucinations and the like. Though many Americans are fascinated by such phenomena as ESP, UFO's, and "close encounters of the third kind"[22], and while "consciousness expansion" still remains popular in some circles, the mainstream of American society prefers its reality and knowledge to be legitimated by sound common sense, pragmatism, and operational utility. For example, in the 1950's, there was a movement of some educators to remove fairy tales from school reading lists on the grounds that they would confuse children as to the nature of "reality."

Like other civilizations before us, we search for answers among the stars rather than in the mystery that man is to himself. Feeling lonely and dwarfed among the galaxies, we direct our radiotelescopes to scan the heavens for extraterrestial intelligence. But what about the extraordinary intelligence that speaks to us with the "other languages of the mind"? "It was only a dream," we may say; or "it was only a fantasy," as if such modes of knowledge were a lapse from the proper use of our mental faculties. Yet since all languages of the mind are rooted in natural biological processes, the situation seems somewhat analagous to a society in which it is agreed that legs are for walking and one might mention apologetically that one has "only" run or jumped.

The Social Destruction of Reality

From the perspective of spontaneous personal knowledge, the difference between the various "languages of the mind" is irrelevant. Whatever is given as self-evident to awareness, regardless of its content or formal properties, is endowed with a biological sense of realness. It is only in reflection or through the application of socially-shared standards of reality that we affix such labels as facts, illusion, fantasies, or dreams to different modes of knowing and to the different products of our mental activities.

The social construction of reality may thus be seen as a labelling process by which spontaneous personal knowledge is sorted into the appropriate categories of social validation. The dog that barks under my window is real; the dog that barked in my dreams is not. The image on the TV screen is real; the figure of Christ as it appears before me is a hallucination. Yet, in a sense, the social construction of reality is also a destruction of the reality of the dream dog and of the Christ figure as I have experienced them on the level of spontaneous personal knowledge.

Given the complexity of the biological substratum of our mental activities, the contingencies of rational action, and the requirements of social life, the social destruction of spontaneous personal knowledge is, to

[22]Spielberg, Steven, 1977. *Close Encounters Of The Third Kind.* New York, Dell.

some extent, inevitable. Yet we must keep in mind that the social construction of reality, which is in the agent of that destruction, is not like the conquest of a new frontier or seed spread over a barren field. It is more like a slum clearance project in an urban neighborhood. What we defin as real collectively may become a bulldozer that relentlessly levels what we have experienced as real in spontaneous personal knowledge.

> The process of levelling is facilitated by certain linguistic practices. For example, as the psychologist, Paul Barkan[23] has pointed out, theutterances of a schizophrenic would sound perfectly normal if they were presented as memories of a dream. Similarly, in his *Philosophical Investigations,* Wittgenstein[24] defines dreams as accounts of past events which are prefixed by the phrase "I dreamt"; a prefix which in our own society is meant to indicate that the events about to be related did not really happen. In a different culture, of course, the same prefix might indicate the opposite, that is, the socially validated conviction that such accounts represent a higher order of truth or reality that what is evident in everyday life.

Linguistic formulas such as "I dreamt that," "I imagine that" and the like, point to an aspect of communicative competence which has received little attention by sociologists: the ability of the speaker to indicate the status of a given communication with respect to its socially validated "accent of reality." Concerning this basic feature of any speech situation, Jurgen Habermas observes:[25]

> Every speech implies the claim of inducing concensus on that which really is (as) distinguished from that which subjectively only appears to be the propositional content. This presupposes a differentiation between a public world or intersubjectively acknowledged interpretations and a private world of sole feelings and impressons.

In terms of the conditions outlined by Habermas, madness may be seen as a failure in communicative competence, that is, a failure to distinguish between intersubjectively acknowledged interpretations (as they derive from the social construction of reality) and spontaneous personal knowledge which may be in conflict with these interpretations. Yet if every speech implies the claim of concensus on what shall or shall not be defined as real, must we conclude that certain types of spontaneous personal knowledge are "unspeakable" or that they can be introduced only with the proper disclaimers such as the prefix "I dreamt that" or "I imagined that"?

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[23]Bakan, Paul, 1976. "The Right Brain Is The Dreamer", Psychology Today. November, pp. 66-68.

[24]Wittgenstein, Ludwig, 1953. *Philosophical Investigations.* New York, Macmillan pp. 148a.

[25]Habermas, Jurgen, 1970. "Towards a Theory of Communicative Competence", in Hans Peter Dreitzel, ed: *Recent Sociology #2.* New York, Macmillan, pp. 105-148.

The problem with Habermas' observations is not that he is wrong but that he is right. Although from the point of view of spontaneous personal knowledge all realties are equally real, the rules of "communicative competence" are the ever-present representatives of the social construction of reality which assign second class status to spontaneous personal knowledge in every speech situation. They may or may not be internalized to the point where they can annul convictions derived from spontaneous personal knowledge. In the majority of cases, however, there will be a tendency to devaluate what is clearly devaluated by our linguistic practices. Even so, spontaneous personal knowledge remains the other side of **homo duplex** who, though living **in** society, in never fully **of** that society and destined, in the end, to die alone.

"Complementary" Realities

The social destruction of spontaneous personal knowledge derives from the fact that Western man tends to think dichotomies. Either something is real or it is not. Yet Eastern thought is more open to the ultimate unity of all human modes of knowing. Chuang Tzu, who taught the doctrines of Taoism around the third century B.C., notes[26].

> Everything can be "that"; everything can be "this"... Therefore it is said, "that" comes from "this" and "this" gave birth to "that" — which means "that" and "this" give birth to one another... Thus, the sage does not bother with these distinctions but seeks enlightenment from heaven. So he sees "this" but "this" is also "that" and "that" is also "this"... When there is no more separation between "this" and "that", it is called the still-point of Tao.

While Eastern philosophy cannot be transplanted into contemporary Western society, modern physics suggests another approach to the problem of multiple realities which comes closer to the realization that "this" can also be "that". Different experiences of reality as they are rooted in different physiological states might be conceptualized as complementary manifestations of the same phenomenon, similar to the concept of complementarity developed by Niels Bohr. Although one might argue that such an analogy is largely metaphorical, certain similarities between Deikman's description of the two "languages of the mind", which we cited earlier, and the wave-particle phenomenon in physics are notable. Deikman's analysis indicates that the cognitive style of the "active" and the "receptive" mode of awareness respectively are indeed complementary in the sense that there is no overlap between them; they cannot be experienced simultaneously; and they show us the same phenomena in a radically different form. Hence, just as the physicist argues that both the

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[26]Chuang, Tzu, 1974. *Inner Chapters.* New York, Vintage Books, pp. 2a.

wave and the particle phenomenon together are essential for our understanding of the nature of light (even though they cannot be observed simultaneously) so we would argue that all experiences of reality taken together are vital for our understanding of the human phenomenon, even so they cannot be experienced simultaneously.

The concept of complementary realities challenges our taken-for-granted notions concerning the dominance of the reality of everyday life. We would point out, however, that such a challenge has already come from a different direction. The concepts of time and space as developed in the theory of relativity, for example, are of a totally different order than those to which we are accustomed in our everyday affairs; yet we accept both versions as real within their respective dominions. In fact, the farther science probes into phenomena which are of an infinitely larger or infinitely smaller magnitude than those with which we deal in the ordinary course of events, the more likely we will be to find that our paradigms of reality are relative to the nature of the phenomena under consideration. The astronomer Sir Bernard Lovell notes[27].

> Although the laws of motion and gravitation inherent in Newton's concept govern our daily life, they are incomplete and unsatisfactory when we try to explain the dynamic conditions of the universe.

We would similarly suggest that paradigms of reality which are applicable to society as a whole may be "incomplete and unsatisfactory" when applied to the subjective experience of the individual. Just as we do not denigrate the physicists' concept of space-time because it does not fit the timetable of our local railroad, so there is no reason to denigrate spontaneous personal knowledge because it does not fit into the coordinates of the world at work. Rather, what seems to be called for is a reconsideration of our paradigms of reality.

The field of sociology could make an important contribution towards such a reconsideration by exploring what we have termed here in the social destruction of reality and the ways in which the complementary nature of different realities could be articulated more constructively. On the theoretical level, this would imply a broadening of the conceptual base of the sociology of knowledge to develop a more balanced picture of the dialectic of nature and society and of the interplay between the biological substratum of mental activity and the social construction of reality. The work of such European scholars as Max Scheler, Maurice Merleau-Ponty, and Jean Piaget comes readily to mind for this purpose. Yet the empirical

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[27]Lovell, Sir Bernard, 1975. "Whence: We Are What We Know About Where We Came From", *New York Times Magazine*, November 16, pp. 27ff.

exploration of the issues indicated in this paper need not wait for such a reconceptualization.

Ethnomethodology is that branch of sociology which studies how members make settings of organized everyday activity "accountable". We suggest, that it could also address itself to the ways in which spontaneous personal knowledge is made "unaccountable" in such settings or denigrated by our accounting practices. In a sense, such a topic would constitute the "anti-matter" of ethnomethodology as it is currently perceived. Yet if ethnomethodologists have developed the skill to make practical activities observable, could they not also develop the skill of making reportable what cannot be reported adequately under the rules of communicative competence to which we referred earlier? Most importantly, however, what seems required here is an understanding of how the ways in which we make settings accountable collectively, relates to the ways in which individuals "account" to themselves for those aspects of spontaneous personal knowledge which are defined as "not real" by society.

Like everything in life, the social construction of reality has its price. Yet sociologists have never explored what that price is; how we learn to take it for granted; and whether there is a point at which this price becomes too high for the individual and/or for society at large. It may be the answer to questions such as these which will challenge (more effectively than any philosophical or theoretical formulation) the usefulness and legitimacy of our present paradigms of reality.

COINS AS AN INVESTMENT MEDUIM

*by Carole E. Scott**

One of the tangibles people have been rushing to swap money for in recent years is commodity money. Coins are the only way people of limited means can speculate in precious metals, and the rapid appreciation of gold and silver a couple of years ago lured many people into such speculation. Coins made of precious metals appeal to the more conservative investor if they have numismatic worth because this offers some downside protection if the price of bullion plummets as it has recently. Bullion speculation may take place either via coins with numismatic value or coins like the Krugerrand or Maple Leaf, which have no numismatic value. Some people buy coins made of precious metals, not to speculate, but because today's high rate of inflation has convinced them we are on the verge of an economic collapse which will make money with no intrinsic value worthles. Others are attracted by the high rates of return they hear one can earn via appreciation for numismatic reasons.

The following advertisement by the New England Rare Coin Galleries which appeared in *Barron's* explains what has attracted some to coin collecting: "How many of today's investments have averaged better than 20% compound return rate over the past 20 years? 20% over the past 5? How many will perform well in bull and bear markets? More and more frequently, financial experts are recommending portfolios that include investment-quality rare coins—one of the safest high performers. Rare coins can easily be placed in Keoghs and IRAs, and find ready liquidity in an eager world market."[1]

Until recently coin collecting was largely a hobby, but some have long claimed that coin collecting can be quite profitable. For example, Solomon Brothers estimates that in the 1968 to 1978 decade rare coins appreciated at a compound annual rate of thirteen percent—well above the inflation rate at the time. David Bowers of Bowers and Ruddy, one of the largest and most prestigious rare coin dealers, claims that rare coins' prices are rising at an average rate of fifteen percent a year. *Business Week* reported that during the 1969 to 1979 decade government issue, collector-quality coins appreciated from 200 to 400 percent, that is, from twelve to seventeen percent annually.[2]

Coins are clearly inferior to stocks and bonds in several respects. A return is earned only via appreciation. Coins are less liquid than are

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[1] *Barron's*, August 14, 1978.

[2] *Business Week*, "Liquidating Your Investment in Collectibles," June 11, 1979.

securities. Banks do not generally advance money for the purchase of coins and alternative lenders are scarce. When a loan can be obtained, it is normally relatively expensive.[3] The coin collector has storage and insurance costs the investor in securities does not have.

Two of the main attractions coins as an investment have that securities don't are that the supply of all coins other than those being minted this year will never rise and that, due to the large number of hobbyists, declines in demand are limited. Some will consider the ease with which profits from an investment in coins are hidden from the Internal Revenue Service to be a significant advantage.

Not too long ago coin collecting could be engaged in by watching the change passing through one's hands. Today it is extremely unlikely that coins worth more than their face value can be found in circulation. Gresham's Law is alive and working. Therefore, collectors must either buy from each other or from dealers. Collectors meet each other through coin clubs and shows. There are a number of coin magazines and newsletters in which they can advertise the coins they wish to buy and sell. Larger cities have a number of coin dealers who will buy or auction coins collectors wish to sell. Auction houses charge a fifteen to twenty percent commission on sales. Dealers frequently buy and sell through the mail. Dealers, too, advertise in the coin magazines and newsletters. After gold and silver prices exploded, dealers began advertising in the general press.

Very few American dealers specialize in foreign or ancient coins; thus, the bulk of the coins sold by dealers in the United States are U.S. coins, mainly those minted by the government.

Coins are minted both by governments and private mints. In early America privately-minted coins circulated. Coins minted in recent years by private mints are not money and seldom have any numismatic value. Their value is dependent on the worth of the metal they are made of.

Grades and Pricing

The price a dealer or a collector will pay for a coin will vary with the condition of the coin and the condition of, respectively, his stock or collection, assuming the coin's numismatic value exceeds its melt-down value. For many years coins were divided into far fewer and less exacting defined grades than is the case today. Today the official American Numismatic Association (ANA) grading system has sixteen grades ranging from about good to perfect proof. (Good means that the coin is very well worn.) There are three grades of proof, three grades of uncirculated, and ten grades of circulated. (A proof coin has a mirror-like surface and is not intended to be circulated. If not treated carefully, its value will decline.)

[3] *New York Times*, "Credit Woes Plague Collectibles Fans," December 10, 1978.

Each grade has a numerical value. While in-between grades are possible, it is difficult to get agreement even among experts aboun whether a coin is, say, a 62 or a 63. Agreement is much more likely for the various grades, which are more than one unit apart. A coin's grade is based on its poorest side. Different opinions about a coin's grade are not unusual, as a good deal of subjectivity is involved, and, of course, a buyer will benefit from under evaluating a coin. Many sellers guard against this by offering their coins to several buyers.

During the trial of Georgia banker Bert Lance a bank officer testified that a coin collection used as collateral for a loan was appraised by a leading Atlanta dealer at $21,228. However, when bids were taken on the collection, this dealer bid $36,000, which was the highest bid. Thus, it is plain that two persons with identical collections could experience quite different rates of return. A short while after the collection was sold for $36,000, the price of gold rose substantially, and it was estimated that the collection could have then brought around $216,000. Clearly, timing of a sale can have a tremendous impact on the rate of return earned. The possible rate of return which can be earned is quite high.

A coin's numismatic value is determined by demand and supply. Demand is affected by a variety of factors. How much appreciation do collectors anticipate? What coins are catching the hobbyist's eye? How many collector's are there? How many are engaged in the different types of collecting?

There are two ways for hobbyists to collect coin: by type or series. Type collecting involves collecting one coin from each type issued. Series collecting involves collecting sets of coins of different denomination.[3]

While mint records tell how many of each type and date were minted, only in the case of the extremely rare old coin can one estimate very closely how many remain in existence. A very high price indicates a coin is thought to be in short supply. Over a number of years the very high price can be expected to bring out all coins still in existence. Since to get the best price, a coin must be offered to several buyers, word gets around as to how many coins there are in existence. Of course, additional coins could be dug up later or brought up from the ocean bottom.

Because the Philadelphia mint issues the most coins, numismatics claim a given coin is more valuable if it was minted in a branch mint like Denver or, especially, San Francisco. Coins with struck-over dates or any other rare imperfections or features, such as the designer's initials, have a greater value than coins which lack these features. Beauty is also said to play a role. For example, the Saint-Gaudens double eagle is said to draw a premium because it is the most beautiful coin ever minted by the United States Government. (This is a twenty-dollar gold coin minted from 1907 to 1933.)

The availability of coins differs somewhat regionally and differences in availability from region to region can cause some price differentials. Local demand may also vary. There is greater local interest in commemorative or other coins with local significances, and this, too, can cause price differentials. Thus, sometimes a quick profit can be made by buying in one place and selling in another.

Numismatics claim coins which are most likely to be high priced and experiencing the greatest appreciation are those coins which are relatively scarce. These coins—called key coins—are fewer in number than are the other coins in the various possible sets of coins. Numismatics also advise investors to go for quality.

Price Guides

The American Numismatic Association, which will authenticate coins, publishes the *Blackbook Price Guide of the United States Coins.* The *Blackbook Price Guide* reports average retail prices for several grades and an average buying price for good and higher grade circulated coins.

The most relied upon price guide is R. S. Yeoman's *Guide Book of United States Coins.* Yeoman also publishes a *Handbook of United States Coins.* The red-covered *Guide*, or *Red Book*, provides retail prices, while the blue-covered *Handbook*, or *Blue Book*, provides wholesale or dealers' prices. Data for these publications is gathered several months before publication, which is usually in July of the year appearing on the cover. Uncirculated coins' prices are not reported.

Dealers will tell you that coin prices are very volatile; thus, one cannot expect to buy or sell at guide book prices. (Coin prices are volatile; yet, when the price of silver plummeted in March 1980, coin prices did not. Dealers said silver's price must stay there for weeks before there would be a response. Gold coin prices also did not plummet when the price of gold did early in 1980. (What dealers would pay for gold and silver coins did, however.) If a dealer has purchased gold or silver coins when the price of gold and silver is high, he resists very strongly lowering the coins' prices even though the metals' prices have declined.

The *Blackbook* provides tables showing the melt value of silver and gold coins at various prices. Dealers discount these values by from fifteen to twenty percent. *Blackbook* prices for silver dollars are in line with the range in which silver was selling when this book was published.

Which Coins Are The Best Investment?

Proof coins are collectors' coins. They are struck for the benefit of collectors. For many coins there exist no proof specimens. No proofs were struck of some types or in some years. Proof coins dated prior to 1855 are very rare. They are the most expensive coins to invest in. If made of gold or silver, after a few years the investor can rest assured their value will not fall.

Proof coins not made of gold or silver are unlikely to prove superior to money market instruments in terms of rate of return, and obviously, they are less liquid. If made of gold or silver, however, appreciation can be expected to exceed money market instruments by a substantial margin. Most proof coins appear to have, at retail, appreciated at a ten to sixteen percent annual rate. If sold for 80 percent of retail value, few would net less than a ten percent annual rate of return. Very few appreciate at retail at twenty percent or more. There is less variation in the rates of return on proof coins than on other grades. As a whole, proof coins are both more profitable and less risky than other grades.

The prices in the *Red Book* do not support the widely-held belief that the best coins to invest in are the higher-priced or key coins. The claim that they are was tested be selecting from the 1965 *Red Book* the highest- and lowest-priced coins of each denomination minted by the federal government, excluding commemorative coins. Quality could not be held constant, as all grades are not reported for each coin, and the grades reported on are not consistent. Most of the coins were very fine quality. All the others were extremely fine. Frequently several dates shared the lowest price. When this happened, the coin with the highest mintage was selected. The 1965 prices were compared with 1980 prices.

The highest rate of return was 9.08 percent for the lowest-priced gold coins! The next highest rate was 7.62 percent for the lowest-priced silver, nickel, and copper coins. The lowest rate of return, 6.45 percent, was for the most-expensive gold coins. Since these are rather expensive coins, many people may be kept out of this market by price considerations. A paucity of buyers could account for the low rate of appreciation of the high priced coins. While purchasing the lowest-priced gold coins required an outlay of only $351.50, the highest-priced gold coins required an outlay of $19,000.

Assuming that a person sold the coins for 80 percent of their *Red Book* prices, the 9.08 percent return would decline to 7.47; the 6.45 percent to 4.87. He would not be likely to get this much from a dealer. For example, for extremely fine, gold Indian Head half eagles ($5) minted from 1908 to 1919, the *Blue Book* value for all those minted is 70.73 percent of the *Red Book* value in 1980. If this was the percent of the *Red Book* value a person received for the lowest-priced gold coins, the rate of return would drop from 9.08 percent to 6.59 percent.

The lower rate of return on the most expensive or key coins has an obvious possible explanation. Each coin is part of a set. Each coin in a set is a complementary good relative to every other coin in the set. Therefore, changes in the demand for a set will have an identical effect on the demand for each coin in the set. The prices of these coins will vary because their supply differs. The higher-priced coins will be relatively less affected by any given increase in demand.

The most expensive coin one can invest in is not a coin minted by the federal government. The highest amount ever paid for a coin was the $725,000 paid for a Brasher doubloon in November 1979. These gold coins were minted in New York in 1787 by a private individual. Only six are known to exist today. I have not been able to find an earlier sale price on this particular specimen. In July 1979 a lesser quality doubloon sold for $430,000.[4] The most ever paid for a silver coin was the $400,000 paid for an 1804 U. S. silver dollar in March 1980. I do not know what price it sold for earlier, but there were sales of this type coin in 1960 and 1961 for, respectively, $28,000 and $29,000. If the one sold for $29,000 sold for $400,000 in 1980, the annual rate of appreciation was 14.81 percent. If the seller received 80 percent of the $400,000, the yield would drop to 13.47 percent per year. Thus, extremely rare coins appear to perform like proof coins.

To test the claim that the lower grades are inferior investments, the annual rate of return an investor would have earned if he had purchased either good or uncirculated Buffalo or Indian Head nickels minted during the 1919 to 1934 period was determined. The prices of fifty-four coins were considered. Fifty-five were minted during the period. The one left out cost far more than all the rest put together, and, so was considered separately. At 1965 prices a person could have bought the good grade nickels for $161.15. In the 1980 *Red Book* they sold for $206.15. Thus, the annual average rate of appreciation was only 1.66 percent. The 1980 *Blue Book* valued these coins at only $106.45. Thus, if sold at wholesale, the seller would have experienced a thirty-three percent loss on the fifteen-year investment. The excluded coin experienced a 4.93 annual rate of return at retail.

Based on the data considered for this paper, one can only conclude that the higher grade coins are superior investments to those of lower quality. Investing in coins not made of precious metals is not very profitable. Both nickels and cents were relatively unprofitable over the 1965 to 1980 period. It was not rare for the price of nickel or a cent to decline over the period. Silver and gold coins appreciated far more and did not fall in value. Only by investing in them would one have much chance of doing better than in stocks, bonds, or time deposits. (Their superior performance was not produced by a rise of their melt value above their numismatic value.)

It was possible to earn better rates of return than have been mentioned so far. For example, the 1911 Barber or Liberty Head half dollar was listed for $27.50 in 1965 and $500 in 1980; thus, it appreciated at a 21.33 percent annual rate! It is interesting to note that in the 1975 edition of *Fell's U. S.*

[4] *Smithsonian*, "Coins Go Up, Up as Fabled Collection Is Sold at Auction," March 1980.

Coin Book, the 1912s Liberty Head half dollar was identified as a key coin likely to appreciate more than most coins. Yet, it sold for $32.50 more than did the 1911 in 1965 and sold for only $10 more in 1980!

Conclusions

The findings of this study of Yeoman's prices from 1965 to 1980 are in close agreement with those of Solomon Brothers, which made the low estimate quoted in this paper. It is possible that the higher estimates were based on retail prices, though this would be misleading, as one is unlikely to sell at retail.

If coins are bought at retail and sold at wholesale, which will have to be done if random, low-quality coins are involved, coins are a poor investment. Only coins made of silver or gold are a good investment, and then only if they are of better than fine quality are the odds in the investor's favor of making a better return than in securities. It is best to invest in the lower-priced coins of a given quality. Rate of return averages higher and more diversification is possible. Downside protection is great for proof of uncirculated quality coins. Extremely fine quality coins are also likely to return more than do securities and provide much more downside protection than stocks do once held long enough to cover an auction house's commission.

THE POET AS EXISTENTIAL SURGEON

*by Steven L. Tanner**

What can be said about the significance of the poet? Heidegger was concerned with this and entitled an essay, "What are Poets for?" The poet obviously is many things to many people. However, the poet that I am concerned with is the one who is singularly possessed with transforming the given language into a universal corpus. The intention is one of revealing that which may lie hidden. For my purposes the poet is part surgeon, one who performs aesthetic surgery, one who performs a manual art, as well as one who is part soothsayer. In the words of Rimbaud:

> The poet becomes a seer by a long, immense, and thoughtout disordered state of all the senses (deregiement de tous les sens). All forms of love, suffering, madness, he looks for himself, he exhausts within himself all poisons in order to keep only the **quintessences**. Ineffable torture wherein he needs all faith, all superhuman strength, wherein he becomes above all others the sick one, the criminal one, the accursed one-and the supremely learned one!-for he arrives at the unknowable . . . Thus the poet is truly the thief of fire.
> (my emphasis)

The process of the poet as artist, as the one who excercises intuitive skills, is one of understanding. The poet's skill comes with a particular awareness of the world. In this process of understanding, the poet truly senses the dichotomy of man posed over against all else. For Heidegger, the poet exists while "the evening of the world's age has been declining toward its night." There is in his essay, the very real sense that the gods have defaulted and left man to undertake his own path to the holy. It is the poet's task to lead on this path. Throughout the essay, Heidegger quotes the poet Holderlin at length, as in the following:

> . . .The heavenly powers Cannot do all things. It is the mortals Who reach sooner into the abyss. So the turn is With these. Long is The time, but the true comes into Its own.

Heidegger concludes from these lines of Holderlin, that the poet is, "He among mortals who must sooner than other mortals and other wise than they, reach into the abyss." It becomes clear from this that it is certainly the poet's mission to "reach into the abyss" and reveal that which is hidden.

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[1]Heidegger, Martin, 1971. "What are Poets For?", *Poetry, Language, Thought*. New York, Harper and Row, Publishers.

[2]Breton, Andre, 1969. *Manifestoes of Surrealism,* Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.

For Heidegger that is a recurring theme.

I have used the metaphor, the poet as existential surgeon, for the authentic poet is he/she who takes the given language and repairs the body of lived experience. Andre Breton declares that "The most effective means he had of doing this is poetic intuition." In this sense it is possible for the poet to cut through that which is presented in the mundane world, that which Heidegger called the inauthentic, excising the afflicted parts or reconnecting disjointed parts in order that there be a continuance of the whole. What happens during the process, the creation, the surgery as it were, quite obviously has to do with the use of language, whether it is used as metaphor, allegory, or as Terrence Des Pres [3] says in his article "Emblems of Adversity," as "political poetry." Des Pres states that in "political poetry", "What we recover . . . is nothing less than ourselves, our humanity gone forfeit and then returned." Robert Bly corroborates this expression in saying that

> A true political poem is a quarrel with ourselves, and the rhetoric is as harmful in that sort of poem as in the personal poem. The true political poem does not order us either to take any specific acts: like the personal poem, it moves to deepen awareness.[4]

Inasmuch as the poet uses the language as intuitive revealing, it is a dialectic, a phenomenology of body/world, being-in-the-world, and a returning from the 'abyss'. Patrick Burman states that

> Much of modern poetry strives, through the media of words, pauses, beats, sounds shapes on the page, etc. to plumb to the depths of awareness and experience — but despite its diving down to primordiality, it continues to bob up to the surface of language. To press the analogy just a little further, language is the life-giving oxygen that at one and the same time keeps the poet from the mysterious depths and yet allows him to descend. Language frees and constrains. Language, for the creative poet, is a source of presuppositions that are creative springboards to the apprehension of hidden words and levels of experience and, most importantly, of their connectedness.

In speaking of Heidegger's interpretation of the Heraclitean Logos, Gerald Bruns,[5] says that Heidegger's metaphor, "Language is the house of being", relates to the central idea that "Man is preeminitely a being-in-the-world for whom existence takes on meaning and reality only as he opens

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[3]Des Press Terrence, 1981. "Emblems of Adversity". *Harper's* (March 1981).

[4]Bly, Robert, 1980. "Leaping Up Into Political Poetry", *National Forum* (Fall 1980).

[5]Bruns, Gerald L., 1974. *Modern Poetry and the Idea of Language*. New Haven ans London Yale Univeristy Press.

himself up to the being of his finite situation." Futhering this notion, Bruns says that "This metaphor belongs to Heidegger's interpretation of the Heraclitean Logos, according to which word and being are said to enjoy a luminescent communion made possible by man's entry into the world." Here, in this light, the poet takes on not only the creation of language in poetic form but cuts open the body of lived experience so that in Brun's words,

> Language here appears to have been returned to a mythic universe in which the word supports, by virtue of its own reality, the world of things. For it is Heidegger's argument that the relationship in which man and world confront one another is both essentially and historically linguistic in character, which is to say that it is authentic human speech which opens up a world before man and, at the same time, opens man to the world and to the being of the world. What is important to notice, however, is that it is the speech of the poet (and the poet-thinker) that constitutes authentic speech. Indeed, if, as we walk through the world, we find ourselves as though in a colloquy of words and things, it is because our world is a field disclosed by the poet — a field, that is, which the poet has established in being.

The revealing through language of the poet's experience of self-reflection takes on a critical perspective. The poet's creation, if it is authentic, becomes a radical act. The poet reaches down into the body of lived experience and conjoins the levels of awareness, i.e., body and mind. Thus the poet connects the world to self and thereby establishes, as Husserl would have it, the ground for being. In his "Ode to Walt Whitman", Lorca so aptly writes,

> And you, beautiful Walt Whitman, sleep on Hudson's banks,
> with your beard toward the Pole and your hands open.
> Bland clay or snow, your tongue is calling for comrades
> that keep watch on your gazelle without a body.
> Sleep; nothing remains.
> A dance of walls agitates the meadows
> and America drowns itself in machines and lament.
> I want the strong air of the most profound night
> to remove flowers and words from the arch where you sleep,
> and a black boy to announce to the gold-minded whites
> the arrival of the reign of the ear of corn.[6]

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[6]Lorca, Federico Garcia, 1955. "Ode to Walt Whitman "*The Selected Poems of Federico Garcia Lorca.* New York, New Directions.

We might ask, upon reading poetry, where does the stuff of poetry come from? I would say that for the most part, it comes from the poet's sense of immediacy and often times a profound sense of alienation and solitude. It is an ever coming to grips with reality. Robert Nugent has written an eloquent and sensitive literary interpretation of the French poet, Paul Eluard. Nugent says of the poet that

> His aloneness becomes most apparent when he is faced by another person, who also lives a present situation of solitude. It is this experience that frees him, not so much from solitude itself, as from the anguish of solitude . . . Life is an immediacy, especially an immediacy of solitude, most evident in the experience of love. And, paradoxically because of love, this solitude beings men together.[7]

I would like to use two verses from one of my own poems in order that I might make a personal poetic statement about the poet's awareness.

> There is no name for what I sense
> to be true, I reside in it,
> speak to it but cannot say its name
> it is not spirit, not sacred
> not absolute, nor rendered unto heaven.
>
> Yet, there it is
> I embrace the day and night of it
> like an lingering odor
> I am caught by it
> for the moment.
> It is an image seared into memory
> returned to bring me a thought
> to hold me close.

Burman writes in his concluding remarks on the poet and on how he/she comes to write poetry, that it is, "In poetry especially, replying as it does on inspiration, a chance image, a memory, an emotion evoked, poems are born out of a receptivity to inner and outer worlds and how they mesh. The poet, in his waiting-for-poems-to-come, is endlessly attentive to how the outer world of apparent objectivity can be taken into the inner realm of his highly subjective creative talent to issue forth as a once-again objective phenomenon, a poem."

The creative and the committed poet, I would say, is usually someone set apart, someone who cannot effectively disavow or turn away from the "calling". Most often the poet lives a somewhat estranged existence, appearing as an eccentric to the public. There are notable exceptions such as Wallace Stevens, who was an insurance man. But for the others, poetry

[7]Nugent, Robert, 1974. *Paul Eluard.* New York: Twayne Publishers, Inc.

is more fully a way of life. Evan Watkins, in speaking of W.S. Merwin's poetry, says that in the making of the poem, "escape itself is already a memory, unpunctuated by the fleeting, present awareness which shapes the poem at the awesome edge of hearing what is felt cannot be written and yet cannot be escaped." Following this same thought, Robin Skelton discusses the importance of the Muse in a poet's life in this way:

> The concept of the Muse presents difficulties to many people. The word has archaic associations, and may even suggest a deliberately fanciful obscurantism on the part of the poet who uses the term. For many people it is simply a shorthand expression for the creative impulse, or for inspiration. For a large number of poets, however, the word has real meaning and almost awesome power. The Muse is the commanding force in the poet's life and requires continual attention, service, and honour.
>
> Such a statement will strike some readers as an absurd inflation of reality. Some poets, even, may wince at it, and object to its romantic crudity, its melodramatic assertiveness. Nevertheless, that which some poets label as 'the muse experience' is central to poetic creation, and it is this experience which forces the poet to discipline his life in ways which non-poets may think peculiar.[8]

At this point I would like to return to the poet/surgeon image. There is, I believe, a guiding image for both the true and creative poet as well as for the physician-surgeon. The image is one of vision, of seeing beyond, a penetration of the concealed. There is inherent in this vision, a certain skill which comes from a unity of body and mind. The symbol of Aesculapius, the Roman god of medicine, would fit this enduring image. For the poet the image would be that of Hippocrene, the "fountain of the horse." This is the fountain in Greece which is used to refer to poetic inspiration. For both poet and surgeon there is a discipline, as well as an intuitive grasp of what needs to be done.

In the sense that poetry and surgery are radical "projects" they are joined. That they are often at the critical essence of the world, i.e., life and death, whether real or metaphorical, furthers the analogy. That they are finally alone in their act, that is, each one performs an incredibly delicate act of restoration, and in the actual doing are singularly possessed in that moment of actuality—this then is their connectedness.

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[8]Skelton, Robin, 1975. *"The Poet's Calling.* London: Heinemann, New York: Barbes and Noble.

[9]Watkins, Evan, 1978, *The Critical Act,* New Haven and London: Yale University Press

A STUDY OF COMPOSITION TEACHING METHODS FOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

by Patricia W. Stokes and Jimmy C. Stokes***

In an era when the public sector lashes attack after attack on the American education system's apparent lack in teaching Johnny to write, it is comforting to know that research shows that we are accomplishing much of what we say we aspire to achieve: we take students where we find them in grade eight and help them to advance throughout their high school career. Not only do they advance, but they do so to a statistically significant degree.

A recent study, (Stokes, 19 78)[1] was undertaken in the Carrollton City Schools to determine whether or not interactions exist among three factors of student composition: judged quality of writing, organizational skills, and average number of words per T-Unit. This study revealed the steady growth of the students; writing abilities through the high school experience. One hundred and twenty students, heterogeneously grouped and evenly divided into eighth, tenth, and twelfth graders, wrote four compositions in class as part of classwork for their English course.

The coded, but unsigned, papers were submitted to three qualified judges of secondary student composition. The General Impression Marking System (Cooper, 1977)[2] was used by the judges to evaluate the student papers. The judges used a scale of 1 (low) to 4 (high) in rating the papers for quality; and, on a later examination after a second random distribution, for organizational skills. The reliability of the judges' ratings was found to be 0.759, well within an acceptable range.

The researchers calculated the average number of T-Units in each paper according to the method developed by Kellogg Hunt and developed by Mellon[3] and O'Hare[4]. A T-Unit can be defined as a main clause and any clausal or less-than-clausal structure attached to it.

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[1]Stokes, Patricia W. *The quality of student composition as predicted by average number of words per T-Unit and organization skills.* (Doctoral dissertation, Georgia State University, 19 78).

[2]Cooper, Charles R., and O'Dell, Lee. *Evaluating writing: Describing, measuring, Judging.* Urbana, Illinois: NCTE, 1977.

[3]Mellon, John C. Transformational sentence-combining: A method for enhancing the development of syntactic fluency in English composition. *NCTE Research Reports*, 1969, *10* (Stock No. 16306).

[4]O'Hare, Frank. Sentence combining: Improving student writing without formal grammar instruction. *NCTE Research Reports*, 1973, *15* (Stock No. 15959).

The data was then submitted to a Duncan's Multiple Range test. The results, as shown in Table 1, indicate that significant growth in quality results from eighth to tenth grade and from tenth to twelfth grade. Similar significant growth in organizational skills was demonstrated. Though growth in sentence maturity as measured by average number of words per T-Unit exists between eighth and tenth grades, it is not statiscally significant. There is, however, significant statistical growth from tenth to twelfth grades.

Therefore, our seniors are writing papers of significantly better quality than when they were in grade eight; they have significantly better organizational tools and have significantly increased the complexity of their sentence structure.

Table 1

Main Effects by Level

Level	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Quality (n=120)				
8	5.07*	1.69	3	10
10	6.65*	1.68	3	11
12	8.53*	1.54	6	12
Organization (n=120)				
8	6.31*	1.83	3	10
10	8.00*	1.89	3	12
12	9.07*	1.56	5	12
Average Number of Words Per T-Unit (n=120)				
8	11.00	3.24	6	22
10	11.49	3.02	3	23
12	12.41*	2.78	4	20

* at .05 level of significance, using Duncan's Multiple Range Test.

The next matter of concern is whether or not we have taught them the kind of writing they need for everyday tasks such as writing job reports, letters of application, and memos to employees. Or, have we turned them into some English teachers' dreams of budding short story authors or poets?

To answer these concerns each of the four compositions was written in a different mode: one was a narrative, one an argumentative (persuasive), one an expository (explanatory), and one a descriptive piece. When the ratings assigned by the judges for quality of writing and organizational skills were analyzed by mode and by grade level, the results showed that in all but one instance (twelfth grade argumentative writing) there was steady improvement from grade eight through grade ten to grade twelve.

As far as quality of writing goes, Table 2 shows that the only instance in which there was a significantly higher rating in one mode over the others was in grade eight. These students could write significantly better quality papers in the story-telling mode, narrative. However in both the tenth and twelfth grades, these ratings have equalized well, while steadily increasing.

It should be noted here, too, that the **mean** ratings on the twelfth grade level are remarkably close to the maximum rating of twelve. At the same time the mean of the eighth grade is close to the minimum rating of three. (These minimum and maximum scores are obtained by adding the lowest possible score, 1, and highest possible score, 4, of all three judges.)

Table 2

Quality of Writing by Mode by Grade Level

Mode	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Grade 8 (n=120)				
Descriptive	4.70	1.80	3	10
Argumentative	4.97	1.45	3	7
Expository	4.77	1.76	3	8
Narrative	5.83*	1.56	3	8
Grade 10 (n=30)				
Descriptive	6.10	1.47	3	9
Argumentative	6.87	1.94	3	11
Expository	6.30	1.51	3	9
Narrative	7.33	1.54	4	10

Grade 12 (n=30)				
Descriptive	8.83	1.58	6	12
Argumentative	7.93	1.41	6	11
Expository	8.67	1.49	6	11
Narrative	8.67	1.58	6	12

*at .05 level of significance, using Duncan's Multiple Range Test.

When organizational skills are examined, however, an unusual finding occurs, as demonstrated in Table 3. Eighth graders organize significantly better papers, statistically speaking, when writing in the narrative mode. But the tenth grade papers show no statistical difference in narrative and argumentative or expository writing. Descriptive papers, however, show statistically significant low ratings for organization in grade ten. The same kind of pattern holds for twelfth grade papers with the interesting swing to low organizational skills in argumentative writing. Nonetheless, organizational skills increase in each mode from grade level to grade level with that one exception of argumentative papers in the twelfth grade.

Table 3

Organizational Skills by Mode of Grade Level

Mode	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Grade 8 (n=30)				
Descriptive	5.67	1.77	3	9
Argumentative	6.00	1.62	4	10
Expository	6.33	1.84	3	10
Narrative	7.27*	1.76	5	10
Grade 10 (n=30)				
Descriptive	6.53*	1.56	3	9
Argumentative	8.33	1.95	4	12
Expository	8.03	1.63	5	11
Narrative	9.10	1.47	6	11

Grade 12 (n=30)				
Descriptive	9.20	1.52	6	12
Argumentative	8.13*	1.57	5	11
Expository	9.40	1.16	7	12
Narrative	9.53	1.61	6	11

*at .05 level of significance, using Duncan's Multiple Range Test

Table 4

Average Works Per T-Unit by Mode by Grade Level

Mode	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Grade 8 (n=30)				
Descriptive	10.03	2.54	6	19
Argumentative	12.70	3.91	7	22
Expository	11.73	3.30	7	21
Narrative	9.53	1.94	7	15
Grade 10 (n=30)				
Descriptive	11.77	2.79	6	20
Argumentative	13.07	3.34	3	23
Expository	10.93	2.80	7	18
Narrative	10.20	2.46	7	19
Grade 12 (n=30)				
Descriptive	12.03	2.36	8	18
Argumentative	13.67*	3.11	7	20
Expository	12.13	2.60	4	18
Narrative	11.80	2.75	6	18

*at .05 level of significance, using Duncan's Multiple Tange Test

The data in Table 4 shows that the complexity and length of sentence structure, as measured by average number of words per T-Unit, shows a gain in words-per T-Unit for all modes from grade level to grade level, with one exception. Average number of words per T-Unit decreases from grade eight to grade ten, but rises dramatically to grade twelve. At none of the levels does this fluctuation acquire a statiscally significant point, either high or low, when compared to the length and complexity of the sentences in the other modes. Only argumentative writing on the twelfth grade level has a statiscally significant higher number of words-per-T-Unit. Oddly enough, this is the same mode which showed a statiscally significant **lower** rating as to organizational skills. It would be easy to assume that lack of organizational skills fostered a need, a need covered with wordiness rather than clarity of thought and purpose. An evaluative look at the papers indicates that the writers had many ideas to express when writing in the argumentative mode. So many, perhaps, that they endeavored to hurry and get all the ideas on paper without pausing to examine the ideas and logically organize them for presentation. This would explain the significantly lower rating in the organization of argumentative pieces by twelfth grade writers. It would also explain the significantly higher number of words per T-Unit as the students tried to "cram" it all into a few sentences with entangled ideas. Nevertheless, this research was not designed to measure such explanations for the phenomena.

Much research has been done in the field of improving composition through sentence-combining exercises. It has been proven in recent work of such researchers as Warren Combs of the University of Georgia that such exercises can improve the sentence structure of writers, making the sentences more complex and longer. It was out of the strain of research of which Dr. Combs is the most recent major contributor that this research was fostered. It seemed illogical that longer and more complex was necessarily better when looking at the whole of the written work. Perhaps as the sentence-combining research continues, some effort should be made to investigate further the evidence presented in this paper that as composition quality goes down, average number of words per T-Unit goes up.

What the research represented in this paper **can** conclude is that no one form of writing is being stressed in high school at the expense of other forms. Johnny is learning to write better and better papers in a variety of modes while he is in school, and he is writing papers judged to be closer and closer to the ideal rating.

It should be noted that the research was conducted with all students of all abilities, ambitions, and backgrounds. All high school graduates are not writing at the top of the scale, nor are all of them getting the lower ratings. They are, however, **as a group**, learning to do a better and better job with their tasks as they progress through high school.

ABSTRACTS OF MASTER'S THESES AND SPECIALIST IN EDUCATION PROJECTS

Bailey, Robert T., (EdS, Secondary Education, August 1980)

A STUDY OF THE EFFECT OF POPULAR MUSIC ON ACHIEVEMENT IN AND ATTITUDE TOWARD CONTEMPORARY UNITED STATES HISTORY

Using two classes of 19 and 21 students each, this study attempted to discover if the use of popular music in teaching contemporary United States history would result in a significant gain in achievement and attitude as compared with the use of the traditional textbook-lecture method. Null hypotheses were used.

The two classes were given the **Henmon-Nelson Test of Mental Ability,** and the mean scores for the control group and the experimental group were computed. The t-test for the difference between the means determined that there was a significant difference in the two groups in regard to mental ability at the beginning of the study.

Remmers' Any School Subject Survey was given as an attitude pre-test. Text booklet A, from Harper and Row's **A People and A Nation,** was given as a pre-test for measuring achievement in contemporary United States history.

A five-week experimental period followed with the control group being taught by the traditional textbook-lecture method. The experimental group was taught with popular music as the central focus of instruction.

At the end of the experimental period **Remmers' Any School Subject Survey** and *A People and A Nation*'s test for contemporary United States history were administered as post-test. Mean gains in attitude, as demonstrated by scores on the pre-test and post-test, were calculated. The t-test found that there was no significant difference in attitude gained at the .05 level of significance.

Because of the significant difference in mental ability of the two groups, an analysis of covariance test on the gains in the pre-test and post-test scores of the achievement test was conducted using mental ability as the co-variant. There was no significant difference in achievement of the control and experimental groups at the .05 level of significance.

The hypotheses were accepted. It was concluded that teaching contemporary United States history with popular music does not produce a significant gain in attitude or achievement.

Beavers, Sharon Seago, (EdS, Secondary Education, August, 1980)

A COMPARISON OF OPEN SPACE AND CLOSED SPACE CLASSROOMS IN SOCIAL STUDIES INSTRUCTION

This study attempted to determine if there would be a statistically significant difference between the mean gain score in attitude and in subject matter knowledge between two eleventh grade United States history classes. One class, the experimental group, was taught in a closed space classroom, and the other class, the control group, was taught in an open space classroom. Null hypotheses were used.

The standardized midterm test for chapters one through nineteen of **The Rise of The American Nation** was administered to both groups as a pretest and a posttest. "A Scale to Measure Attitude Toward Any School Subject," developed by H. H. Remmers, was administered to both groups as a pretest and a posttest. The experimental process lasted for a twelve-week period. Identical materials and teaching methods were employed. The only difference in treatment between the experimental and control groups was that of open space and closed space physical environment. At the end of the treatment mean scores for pretest and posttest subject knowledge and mean scores for pretest and posttest attitude were computed for both groups.

An analysis of covariance procedure was used to test for difference in mean gains in students' knowledge of United States history and to test for differences in mean gains in students' attitude toward social studies. Both null hypotheses were accepted.

Therefore, it was concluded in this study that it made no significant difference in attitude or knowledge gained in United States history whether two groups of social studies students wer taught in a closed space or open space physical environment.

Brown, Kay G. (Ed.S., Elementary Education, March 1980)

A COMPARISON OF ACHIEVEMENT OF MIDDLE GRADE SCIENCE STUDENTS IN PROCESS-INQUIRY VERSUS TRADITIONAL-TEXTBOOK ORIENTED CLASSROOMS

This study was designed to analyze what effects the inquiry approach to teaching science has on science achievement. There were 54 six grade students in the study, all of whom attended the Alabama Street School in Carrollton, Georgia.

The Analysis of Covariance was the statistical test used to test the raw data. The dependent variables were achievement and retention. The two teaching methods used to teach the science unit were the independent variables. The Intelligent Quotient (I.Q.) scores were used as the covariate. Two null hypotheses were tested. one was not rejected and the other hypothesis was rejected.

The reuslts of the study showed that children taught science in a process-inquiry approach scored significantly higher at the .05 level of significance in achievement as compared to children taught bu the traditional-textbook method. The results also showed no significant difference on the delayed posttest between the two groups.

Bussler, Ron A., (EdS. Secondary Education, August, 1980)

A STUDY OF CAREER EDUCATION IN THE TEACHING OF SOCIAL STUDIES

This study sought to determine if a planned program of career education made any significant difference in test scores of two different eighth grade classes each of which had taken the career development section of the Georgia Criterion Reference Test. The 1978 control group had received no formal career instruction before taking the test, whereas the 1979 experimental group had received such instruction. A second problem of the study was to determine if there were differences in relationship of sex in reference to the test scores on the career development section of the Georgia Criterion Reference Test.

Both the 1978 and the 1979 Georgia Criterion Reference Test in career development consisted of the same twenty objective items. Each student of each group, however, was required to answer only ten of the objectives. The objective questions differed from student to student.

In addition to the above mentioned test, both groups were given the Iowa Test of Basic Skills to determine mental ability. The t-test statistic was computed to determine if there was a difference between the means of the two groups. The mean score of the experimental group was significantly higher than that of the control group.

For each of the twenty items of the test, chi-squares were computed to determine if there were differences in the way each group (males and females and the experimental group and the control group) answered each item. These chi-squares showed that on one of the twenty items girls answered the item significantly higher than the boys. Also, on one of the twenty items the experimental group answered the item significantly higher than did the control group. In both instances, on the other criterion items, there were no significant differences.

Chambers, William Vernon, (MA, Psychology, August, 1980)

PERSONAL CONSTRUCT PSYCHOLOGY AND CREATIVITY

Personal constructs are described by the author as sentences that function descriptively, prescriptively, postcriptively, and as experiences in-themselves. A parallel is made between construct theory and music theory. Grid techniques are presented that reflect the history and the rationality of the modullations of constructs.

Compton, Bobby W., Jr., (EdS, Secondary Education, June, 1980)

BEHAVIOR MODIFICATION AS A REHABILITATIVE APPROACH TO JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

The purpose of this study was to make a comparative ananalysis of the recidivism rate for juveniles at the Rome Regional Youth Development Center prior to and after the implementation of a behavior modification program. Null hypotheses wer used.

Students were divided into three groups. The control group consisted of those students who were admitted to the institution from 1968 through 1971. This group did not receive the treatment of behavior modification techniques. The experimental or treatment group consisted of those delinquent students who were admitted from 1972 through 1975. This group did not receive the treatment of behavior modification techniques. The third group consisted of all those students who were admitted during the period of 1968 through 1971 and who also returned during 1972 or later. This group was admitted prior to the implementation of the behavior modification program, but was also subsequently admitted when the behavior modification program was in effect. This third group was labelled the control-treatment group.

The analysis of variance was conducted with group, sex and race as independent variables and the rate of recidivism as the dependent variable. A total of eight hundred seventy-four cases were processed covering a span of eight years. Regarding the means of the rate of recidivism of the groups, it was found that there was a significant difference at the .05 level with the highest rate associated with the group that received the behavior modification treatment. Regarding the rate of recidivism means of the sexes, it was found that there was also a significant difference at the .05 level with males having the higher rate. There were no significant interaction among the independent variables. It was concluded that the behavior modification techniques may tend to increase the recidivism rate for delinquent youth.

Copley, Gary L., (EdS, Secondary Education, August 1980)

A STUDY TO COMPARE VIEWS OF STUDENTS, PARENTS, AND SCHOOL PERSONNEL WITH RESPECT TO THE GOALS OF SECONDARY SOCIAL STUDIES

The purpose of this study was to compare views of students, parents, teachers, and school administrators of Gordon County concerning the objectives for the secondary social studies program. Students and parents of students enrolled at the two senior high schools in Gordon County, Fairmount High School and Red Bud High School, were used as the student and parent population from which the sample was selected. From these groups, the sample was randomly selected. All social studies teachers in grades five through twelve in Gordon County were asked to participate. All principals and assistant principals in Gordon County were used as subjects. The administrators in the Gordon County Board of Education office, who have input into the development of the social studies curriculum, were asked to participate. The four groups rated the importance of fifteen objectives of the secondary social studies program which had been extracted from the writing of leading social studies educators. In order to determine if statistically significant differences occurred for each of the fifteen objectives, chi squares were computed between the six groups: students-parents, students-teachers, students-administrators, administrators-teachers, administrators-parents, and teacher-parents. The results revealed that a significant difference occurred on ten objectives between students and parents, on one objective between students and administrators, on three objectives between students and teachers, and on two objectives between parents and administrators. It was concluded that significant differences did exist among t .e four groups compared concerning the objectives of the secondary social studies program. A second chi square was computed between the · ·ale and female student groups to see if there was significant statistical di ference among the rating distributions of male and female students. A significant statistical difference was found on one objective. There was little difference overall found in the way male students and female students rated the objectives.

Cousins, Barbara, (EdS, Elementary Education, August, 1980)

A COMPARISON OF DIRECTIVE AND NO-DIRECTIVE APPROACHES TO ENHANCE POSITIVE ATTITUDES TOWARD READING WITH THIRD GRADE REMEDIAL READING STUDENTS

The purpose of this study was to determine if directive strategies for enhancing positive attitudes toward reading does influence attitudes

toward reading and reading achievement. The study was designed to determine if subjects in the experimental group who received the instructional approach for fostering positive attitudes toward reading and would score significantly higher on positive attitudes toward reading and reading achievement compared to the subjects in the control group who did not receive this approach.

The subjects in the study were thirty third grade students who were enrolled in the Title I Remedial Reading Program at the Cartersville Elementary School, Cartersville, Georgia.

Six hypotheses were tested. Four of the hypotheses concerned within group gains of attitudes toward reading and reading achievement. Two of the hypotheses concerned a comparison between the experimental and control groups of change in attitudes toward reading and reading achievement gains.

To determine change in attitude toward reading the following three measures were used on pretests and posttests: the **Thomas H. Estes Reading Attitude Scale** which obtained a measure of attitude from responses made by students on the attitude scale; the **Rowell Attitude Scale** that obtained measure of attitude according to responses made by the students' classroom teachers from observation of students' reading behaviors; the third measure was obtained by computation of the combined scores of the **Thomas H. Estes** and the **Rowell Attitude** scales.

Reading achievement gains were determined by pretest and posttest scores made on the **Stanford Diagnostic Reading Test.**

The hypotheses were tested by using the correlated t-test for statistical analysis of within group gains. For comparing differences between groups the analysis of covariance was used. The pretest score was the covariate and the posttest score the dependent variable. The group was the independent variable. The level of significance for rejecting the null hypotheses was established as .05.

Results of the analyses indicated a significant difference of positive attitudes toward reading in favor of the experimental group which received the directive approach for enhancing positive attitudes toward reading.

Dulaney, Rhonda Matthews, (EdS, Elementary Education, August, 1980)

A STUDY OF THE ATTITUDES OF STUDENTS, PARENTS, AND TEACHERS TOWARD HOMEWORK AND IMPLICATIONS FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF HOMEWORK

This study proposed to ascertain the attitudes of students, parents and teachers toward homework. Student, parent and teacher homework

questionnaires were administered to gather information for the study. After the data were tabulated, the results were used to establish recommendations/guidelines to foster healthy student attitudes toward homework and to improve homework's value.

The following areas were investigated:

1. An analysis of the responses of students to items on the student homework questionnaire.

2. An analysis and comparison of the responses of boys and girls to items on the student homework questionnaire.

3. An analysis of the responses of parents to items on the parent homework questionnaire.

4. An analysis of the responses of teachers to items on the teacher homework questionnaire.

5. An analysis and comparison of the responses of teachers, students and parents to selected items on the homework questionnaire.

The subjects for the study were 137 sixth year students, 87 parents and 24 teachers at a middle school in metropolitan Atlanta, Georgia. The school has approximately 720 students in grades six through eight in a suburban, upper-middle income community.

The data presented are a tabulation and analysis of the student, parent and teacher questionnaires.

It appears that students, parents and teachers hold, in general, healthy attitudes toward homework and consider homework to be beneficial and important.

Duncan, Ruth Debord, (EdS, Early Childhood Education, August 1980)

A STUDY OF THE CHILDREN WHO ATTEND THE MORNING KINDERGARTEN SESSION AND THE AFTERNOON KINDERGARTEN SESSION AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP OF SCORES ON THE METROPOLITAN READINESS TEST IN TWO SUBURBAN ATLANTA AREA ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

A study was conducted to investigate the effects of teaching kindergarten children and to determine if there is a significant difference in the scores on the Metropolitan Readiness Test of the children who attend the morning session with the children who attend the afternoon session of two suburban Atlanta area elementary schools, during the 1979-80 academic year.

This study provided a basis to support or reject the null hypothesis that children who attend the afternoon session of kindergarten will make similar scores on the Metropolitan Readiness Test as the children who attend the morning session of kindergarten. The Metropolitan Readiness Test was given to the children during the last week of April. The children had been in school for a period of eight months. The t test and the mean test were used to compare the scores of the two groups of children. Results showed no significant difference on five of the readiness subtests and the two math subtests. The morning class scored a higher score on the test for visual matching, test number three. The t test showed a significant difference on test number three with the difference being 035. On the composite scores for reading and math readiness, there were no significant differences.

A recommendation was made for further studies using an entire county for the comparison of children attending the morning and afternoon sessions of kindergarten. It was also recommended that a breakfast program be established at all schools since nutrition plays such an important part in a child's learning. It was also advised that the children should have a pre-test and a post-test.

Flowers, Sharon Bookout, (EdS, Secondary Education, August 1980)

A STUDY TO MEASURE THE EFFECT OF AN INTRODUCTION TO SOCIAL STUDIES COURSE AT THE NINTH GRADE LEVEL UPON STUDENT INTERESTS TOWARD THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The purpose of this study was to determine whether because of a ninth grade level introduction to social studies course in Whitfield County, there was an increase in student interest in social studies.

The students used in the study were 56 high school students from Southeast Whitfield High School in Dalton, Georgia. Thirty-two of the students had completed four years of high school and, in the beginning of their ninth grade, they had taken the introduction to social studies course. A control group consisting of 24 students who, when they entered the ninth grade, did not take the introduction to social studies course. Both groups were given the H. H. Remmer's "A Scale to Measure Attitude Toward Any School Subject," Form A., to determine their initial interests in the social studies. The test was administered two times to both groups: (1)upon entering the ninth grade and (2) at the end of the first quarter of the ninth grade. The experimental group was tested a third time. This was four years later at the end of high school.

At the end of the first quarter of the ninth grade year, a comparison was made for both the experimental group and the control group. This comparison was made of the gain scores in interest in the social studies from the beginning of the ninth grade to the end of the first quarter of that year. Another comparison was made between the mean gain scores for this time period of the experimental group and the control group. Also, a comparison of gains in interest in social studies was made for the experimental group between the beginning of the ninth grade and the end of four years of high school. Comparison was also made between the males and females in relationship to their interest in social studies.

The experimental group, when compared with the control group, did not show any significant difference in interest in the social studies at the end of the first quarter of the ninth grade. Neither the experimental group nor the control group showed any significant gains in interest in the social studies between the beginning and end of the introduction course. At the .05 level, there was a significant increase in interest in the social studies made by the experimental group by the end of four years of high school. There was no significant difference in interest in the social studies between male and female students.

Fountain, Anita M., (EdS, Elementary Education, August, 1980)

THE LONGITUDINAL EFFECTS OF PROJECT SUCCESS ENVIRONMENT ON DISCIPLINE IN A RURAL ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

The purpose of this educational study was to assess the effects of the contingency management system, Project Success Environment, on the rate of discipline administered by an elementary school principal. Data on behavioral incidences over a six-year period were compiled and examined to determine the longitudinal effects of the positive reinforcement system used in a northwest Georgia rural school.

The sets of records for the control year and for the five experimental years were compared utilizing the chi square method at a selected .05 significance level. Six discipline areas were also examined for each of the years. They were: student conferences and warnings, parent conferences, suspensions, paddlings, written assignments, and other disciplinary actions.

The results of the study exhibited a significant level of effectiveness on maintaining student discipline over the five-year period. The calculations for each experimental year's totals revealed a significant reduction and also revealed a trend toward a continuing decrease in student discipline cases handled by the principal. An examination of the areas of discipline

showed a significant reduction in each category with the exception of parent conferences.

The overall reduction in the discipline cases over the five-year period demonstrated the positive effects of Project Success Environment upon student behavior. It is therefore recommended that in order to preserve the effectiveness of the program, the techniques should be continued, with more emphasis on academic behaviors. Systematic record-keeping procedures should be maintained, for the effects of the program may have further implications in the future for those who have participated and for other schools that wish to improve the social and academic behaviors of students.

Hague, Nancy, (EdS, Early Childhood Education, March 1980)

A STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF THE EARLY CHILDHOOD GRADUATE EDUCATION PROGRAM AT WEST GEORGIA COLLEGE ON GRADUATES AFTER RE-ENTERING THE TEACHING PROFESSION

The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of the early childhood graduate education program at West Georgia College on the teaching processes of its graduates from June, 1979, to June, 1980, who had earned a masters degree and had returned to teaching. Evaluative questionnaires developed by the early childhood education department were completed by graduates and their supervisors to determine the skills, characteristics, and behaviors in the teaching processes. The positive results are shown by raw score, percentages, mean scores, and the percentage relationships of matched pairs of supervisors and teachers. The conclusion from the study is that the early childhood graduate education program has positive effects upon the teaching processes of the graduates.

Moore, Suzanne, (EdS, Elementary Education, August, 1980)

THE ROLES AND PROBLEMS OF VOLUNTEER CHRISTIAN EDUCATORS, THEIR ASSESSED INSERVICE NEEDS AND ATTITUDES TOWARDS CHRISTIAN EDUCATION

This project was designed to study the role of the volunteer teacher and his problems, to determine his inservice needs, and identify his attitudes towards Christian education. The subjects were the volunteer teachers of the Cathedral of Saint Philip in Atlanta, Georgia. The length of the study was seven months.

Questionnaires to assess the volunteer teachers on inservice needs attitudes toward Christian education, and general information were used. The results were tallied to form group profiles, using raw scores and weighted scores.

The conclusions made as a result of this study indicate:

1. A majority of volunteer teachers have attended the Cathedral of Saint Philip over eleven years.
2. There were dominant topics which volunteer teachers want covered in future inservice training.
3. Inexperienced teachers have different inservice needs than experienced teachers.
4. There was no one approach to Christian education that most volunteers adhered to.
5. Participants who chose the same approach to Christian education have common inservice needs.

James, Robert Louis, (EdS, Secondary Education, March, 1980)

A TEACHER'S RESOURCE GUIDE FOR TEACHING THE LOCAL HISTORY OF POLK COUNTY, GEORGIA

The purpose of this study was to provide a resource guide for teaching the history of Polk County, Georgia. At the present time, there is no resource guide for this purpose.

The heart of this resource guide is a compilation of sources of local history in Polk County. There are biographical sketches on people whose knowledge and experiences equip them to discuss selected areas of Polk County history. These individuals reside in Polk County and are available and seem willing to share their particular knowledge.

Also included are depositories of information. These depositories include courthouses, city halls, newspapers, libraries, city directories, and historical societies.

Other sources of local history included are historic sites. These include churches, cemeteries, historic markers, and historic homes.

Finally, there are five taped interviews with four people who collectively cover a wide range of topics in Polk County history.

The emphasis in the study was that of finding and annotating depositories of information and interviewing selected individuals who have special knowledge of some aspect of Polk County history.

Johnson, Forrest Clark, III, (MA, History, August, 1980)

A HISTORY OF LAGRANGE, GEORGIA 1828-1900

The purpose of this work is to examine the development of LaGrange, Georgia in the Nineteenth Century from a small, frontier county seat in 1828 to an important, modern Georgia city in 1900. In tracing LaGrange's history, the paper accentuates social, economic, cultural, and governmental growth within the urban pattern. The value of studying this single town is to learn more about Southern urbanization since relatively little research has been devoted to the growth of smaller Southern cities. We gain greater understanding of the larger scheme by closely examining a tiny part of it. We see patterns in LaGrange which reflect those of the town's region—the Georgia cotton belt—and which are universally typical of urbanization. Additionally, we gain a perspective of the variances which made LaGrange exceptional by seeing how its people handled the urban process. State history is enhanced through this study because consideration is seldom given to the western section of Georgia in general works.

There were many encumbrances in compiling this chronicle, particularly concerning primary documentation. City records and local newspapers prior to 1874 have been lost or destroyed. There were a few issues of the LaGrange *Reporter* extant for the the years 1868-1870. Fortunately, the available newspapers frequently gave information concerning matters predating the papers themselves. The balance of primary information came from living people and their family papers, census records, courthouse records, and papers in the state archives. Poring through, extracting, and compiling these records was laborious. Many hours of searching would often produce but a single, usable fact. Secondary sources were valuable, but few and hard to locate. The one county history, written by a non-native in 1933, was full of important data but not cohesively arranged. The book was habitually misleading and often vague or shallow in areas beyond the author's personal experiences or recollection. State histories, especially those written in this century, seldom discuss or incorporate specific information or data concerning West Georgia or LaGrange and therefore their conclusions did not fit my topic.

The people who helped me, and to whom I hereby acknowledge my appreciation and great debt, were numerous. Many contributed to the accumulation of my knowledge on the subject but I must limit mention of all but the principal ones, who are: Col. James W. Boddie; Mrs. Enoch Callaway, Jr.; Mr. Fuller E. Callaway, Jr.; Mrs. Mary Jane Hill Crayton; Misses Katherine and Pearl Dozier; Mrs. Edgar H. Dunson; Mrs. John D. Faver; Mrs. Reuben Garland; Mr. and Mrs. Curtis Glass; Mrs. Cato Green; Dr. Waights G. Henry, Jr.; Mrs. Ethel Dallis Hill; Mrs. Talmadge

Alfred Hogg; Mrs. F. C. Johnson, Sr.; Mrs. Pierce T. Lee; Mrs. Arthur E. Mallory, Sr.; Mrs. Raymond W. Martin; Miss Tommie C. Martin; Mr. Kenrick W. Mattox, Sr.; Dr. and Mrs. Emory R. Park; Mrs. Raleigh Park; Mrs. Edward E. Strain, Jr.; Miss Theodora Thomas; Mrs. Arthur Thompson; Mrs. Forrest Truitt, Sr.; and Mrs. John D. Westervelt. These people and others shared their family papers, oral traditions, remembrances, and knowledge with me and gave me many interesting insights into LaGrange history.

I owe a great debt to Mayor Gardner Newman, and the LaGrange city council for making city records available to me after hours and to Mr. Christopher Boner and the staff of Coleman Library, particularly Mrs. Mary Lou Dabs, for invaluable assistance. Much of my research would not have been possible without the facilities which the Fuller E. Callaway Foundation and the Callaway Educational Association provide; I thank them. Also, I wish to thank the staff of LaGrange Memorial Library, Mrs. Donald R. Curry of Troup High School, and the people at the Georgia Department of Archives and History in Atlanta, with special thanks to the Surveyor General's office. I am indebted also to Mrs. Elizabeth W. Traylor, Clerk of Court, Troup County, and her staff, as well as Judge Ely W. Hanson, Probate Judge of Troup County, and his assistant, Mrs. Virginia B. Coker, for their immense aid.

I wish to give special thanks to Miss Paula A. Smith of LaGrange and Mrs. Richard A. Folk of Carrollton for their help with editing, to Mrs. Susan F. Johnson of LaGrange for the typing, to Miss Vicky Myers of Carrollton for the map work, and to my faithful cousin Mary Martin Davis Bowen, whose agony throughout this project has nearly equalled my own.

Last, though far from least, I extend my gratitude to the faculty of West Georgia College, specifically to my committee, Professor Theodore Fitz-Simons, Dr. J. David Griffin, Dr. Robert R. Myers, and Dr. Richard R. Folk. Without these four men this study would have lacked depth and meaning; they would not let me be satisfied with second-rate work. Professor Fitz-Simons and Dr. Griffin were extremely helpful suggesting additional sources and interpretations and Dr. Myers contributed greatly by suggesting alternative insights and approaches. I owe Dr. Folk, in particular, a great and unpayable debt for his years of work, faith, and encouragement. Dr. Folk has been for me as Virgil was to Danta—a guide through Hedes.

King, Kay Brown, (EdS, Elementary Education, March, 1980)

A STUDY OF THE EFFECT OF TELEVISION VIEWING ON READING ACHIEVEMENT OF BOYS AND GIRLS AT MAIN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL IN ROME, GEORGIA 1979-1980

The following study was conducted in order to determine the effect of television viewing on reading achievement and to determine the existence of a relationship between viewing hours from grade to grade. Students from the Main Elementary School were involved in the study.

A questionnaire requiring information on the student's weekly number of television viewing hours was issued to all students in grades one through six to be completed by the student's parents and returned to the teacher on a voluntary basis. In relating television viewing to reading achievement, only those students who had taken the Georgia Criterion Referenced Test during the 1979-1980 school term and who had returned the questionnaire were used. This included students from second, third, fourth, and sixth grades. Special education students were not used. Scores from the reading section of the Georgia Criterion Referenced Test were obtained from the school's composite record of the test results and recorded on the students' questionnaires.

The Pearson Correlation Coefficient test was used to compare television viewing hours and reading achievement scores. Findings indicated a nonsignificant positive correlation between these two variables. A Crosstabulation and Chi-square test also yielded a nonsignificant correlation.

In determining the relationship between viewing times of each grade, all students from grades one through six who returned the questionnaire were used. This included special education students. The mean viewing time from each grade was computed and compared. No consistent increase or decrease in viewing time was found from grade to grade such as existed in similar research studies. However, in agreement with other studies, the peak viewing time was found to occur in the sixth grade.

McKibben, William Park, (EdS, Administration and Supervision, August, 1980)

CONTRACTURAL MAINTENANCE SERVICES AS RELATED TO THE COUNTY MAINTENANCE DEPARTMENT OF THE CARROLL COUNTY SCHOOLS

As is the case with many school systems in the State of Georgia, the Carroll County School System is faced with the situation of having many varied needs in the area of maintenance services but only limited service from the existing maintenance department.

The many facilities owned and operated by the Carroll County School System are all cared for and repaired by the county maintenance department. These facilities are very diversified in nature, including classroom buildings, lunchroom facilities, gymnasiums, county offices, and numerous outbuildings and storage units.

The maintenance department of the Carroll County School System makes every efort to adequately service the above mentioned bacilities with its equipment and personnel. The maintenance personnel do a good job with minor school repairs, yard care, and maintenance and landscaping services.

However, the Carroll County Schools are faced with problems that could possibly be remedied through some different maintenance procedures. Through this study the school system maintenance operation has been surveyed, showing the present maintenance department, the cost of personnel salaries and benefits, general department operation, equipment operation, and costs relevant to the department in general.

A comparison of the costs of present maintenance department operations and outside contractual services was established. A system of partial county maintenance and limited outside contractual services was also surveyed.

It has been shown how the individual schools can better train their existing custodial personnel to do a more adequate job in the various facilities. This was done in terms of cost and efficiency.

There were some limitations to this project in the beginning. Some contractors were hesitant to estimate costs for contractual services that they might be called upon to perform, but a system to overcome this problem was derived and explained in the research project.

The emphasis of the project was to compare contractual maintenance services with the present system of county maintenance to determine the most cost effective usage of personnel and funds.

Data was collected from county records, cost surveys, personal interviews, and relevant research in similar areas. Any costs and pricing rates cited in this project were current only during the 1979-1980 school year. Each system must survey costs as they relate to their particular needs.

McMillen, Patrick Bertram, (EdS, Special Education, March 1980)

IMPLEMENTATION OF A PLAN OF MAINSTREAMING OF HEARING IMPAIRED CHILDREN INTO THE REGULAR SCHOOL PROGRAM OF CATOOSA COUNTY, GEORGIA

In the late fall of 1978, the decision was made by the Catoosa County Board of Education to move the hearing impaired children of the county from a regional center for exceptional children into the mainstream of the regular school program.

The purpose of this study was to describe how a plan was developed and implemented to accomplish this.

Seven hearing impaired children, ranging from five to sixteen years of age, were involved in a mainstreaming plan developed at Battlefield Elementary School, a school having 400 students and serving kindergarten through the sixth grades with twelve regular and two special education teachers.

A review of the current literature and research was conducted which helped form the base for the implementation plan at Battlefield. A step by step description of the plan was outlined in the study.

The conclusions reached were that a gradual evolutionary approach with a four-phase program of mainstreaming hearing impaired children into the regular classroom appeared to be the most successful in the Catoosa County situation. Secondly, the degree and extent that a hearing impaired child was mainstreamed largely depended on the individual readiness of the child, as determined by the educational team working with the child. Thirdly, the primary goal of the program was the preparation of hearing impaired children to be able to participate in the hearing world. Fourthly, an intensive program of orientation and training with the regular and special education staff, the students, the parents, and the community facilitated the chances for success. Lastly, a strong commitment to the concept of mainstreaming and the development of strategies to accomplish that end also contributed to the success of the Catoosa County program.

The study was limited due to its localized nature and small numbers of children involved. The strategies, plans and conclusions found in this study may not be suited for every school system, and therefore should not be

generalized. On the other hand, it is felt that due to the recent trends in the education of the handicapped the study has significance because it is a practical application of current theories. It is possible that the Catoosa County experience would be helpful to others who might wish to mainstream their hearing impaired children.

Murphy, H. Lynn, (EdS, Elementary Education, March, 1980)

A COMPARISON OF READING READINESS OF STUDENTS WHO HAVE A BACKGROUND OF MOVEMENT EDUCATION WITH THOSE WHO HAVE NOT

An experimental research study was conducted to decide if the implementation of movement education activities would result in an increased level of reading readiness at the end of the kindergarten experience. Group One was given the usual kindergarten experience with the added treatment of selected movement education activities. Group Two received the usual kindergarten experience only. Group One and Two were considered to be equivalent because their assignment to classes was a result of random selection. Both groups were taught by the same teacher.

A four area reading readiness test was administered as a posttest-only control group design. The t test was selected as the analysis to compare the gains of the two groups. While the experimental group appeared to have a greater gain than the control group, the gains were not great enough to be considered significant. The result of the statistical comparison revealed that the implementation of movement education activities in the kindergarten does not necessarily result in increased levels of reading readiness.

Murray, Barry W., (EdS, Secondary Education, August, 1980)

A STUDY TO COMPARE LEVELS OF ECONOMIC UNDERSTANDING BETWEEN BUSINESS EDUCATION TEACHERS AND SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS

The main problem of this study was to determine whether or not a difference in the level of economic understanding existed between business education teachers and social studies teachers. Secondary problems of the study were to determine whether or not a difference in the level of economic understanding existed between elementary school teachers and social studies teachers, elementary school teachers and business education teachers, and between male and female teachers.

The population of this study was composed of two hundred and four experienced teachers from the metropolitan Atlanta area who participated in workshops on economic education held from 1966 to 1977 at Georgia State University. Of these, fifty-six were males and one hundred and forty-eight were females. The sample consisted of one hundred and five social studies teachers, forty-four business education teachers, and fifty-five elementary school teachers.

The data were collected from records of economic education workshops at the Center for Business and Economic Education, Georgia State University, Atlanta, Georgia. The *Test of Economic Understanding*, Form A, developed by the Joint Council on Economic Education, was used to measure the level of understanding of economic concepts. The statistical technique used to test for differences between the groups was the t-test for independent means.

The findings indicated no significant difference at the .01 level in economic understanding between business education teachers and social studies teachers. Elementary school teachers' level of economic understanding was significantly lower than that of social studies teachers and business education teachers. Female social studies and business education teachers were less knowledgeable about economics than were their male conterparts.

Owens, Vera Y., (EdS, Elementary Education, March, 1980)

A COMPARISON BETWEEN THE EFFECTS OF ORAL AND TOTAL COMMUNICATION ON READING VOCABULARY TEST SCORES AMONG FIFTH YEAR DEAF STUDENTS AT GEORGIA SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF

The purpose of this study was to compare the effects of Oral Communication and Total Communication on vocabulary development based on test results from the Vocabulary Sub-test of the Stanford Achievement Test.

The subjects for this study were randomly selected from the composition of Fifth Year classes 1971-72 and 1977-78. These time periods represented the children taught orally and the children taught utilizing Total Communication during their first five years of schooling.

For comparison the subjects tested in the spring of 1972 were assigned to the Oral Group while those tested in the spring of 1978 were assigned to the Total Communication Group. Twenty-four test scores were assigned to each group.

The mean , standard deviation and difference in the mean were computed. The significance of the difference in the mean was arrived at

through application of the t-test. The difference proved to be significant beyond the .01 level of confidence. It was concluded that utilizing Total Communication with the deaf will very likely result in higher vocabulary development than will Oral Communication alone.

Sanders, C. Wayne, (EdS, Elementary Education, August 1980)

THE EFFECTS OF THE READING/ENGLISH ROTATION PROJECT ON THE READING ACHIEVEMENT OF SIXTH GRADE STUDENTS WHO ARE TWO OR MORE YEARS BEHIND IN READING ACHIEVEMENT

The Reading/English Rotation Project was designed to improve reading skills of students two or more years behind in reading achievement. Forty-six sixth grade students fro Rockmart Middle School in Rockmart, Georgia qualified for the thirty minute classes daily of Reading, English, and Title I Skills Lab. All three classes worked together to teach needed reading skills. Three teachers and aides coordinated instruction as much as possible in order to reinforce these skills.

Pre-assessment and post-assessment scores from the California Achievement Test were used in the analyses. Two sets of scores were used, and both came from the reading section of the test. The grade level score was used to determine the average reading growth of the subjects prior to the sixth grade by dividing the pre-assessment grade level by the number of years the student had been in school. This was contrasted with the growth made by the student during the sixth grade. A t-test analysis on the difference between the two sets of scores was made. The second set of scores was taken from the obtained scale scores. These scores allow for comparison of all levels of the California Achievement Test. An Analysis of Covariance with IQ as the covariate and the difference in scores as the dependent variable was applied to determine any significant difference in gains among the three groups. The level of significance was established at .05.

Results from the analyses showed that all three groups improved in reading achievement, but only two were significant at the .05 level. The growth was significant for the total sample of students involved in the study. There was no significant differences in gains among the three groups. These statistics indicate that the Reading/English Rotation Project was successful in helping most of the low achievers improve their reading skills significantly over prior growth.

Schumacher, Joseph E., (MA, Psychology, August, 1980)

THE AUTHENTICITY OF SUIDICE

Since the dawn of man and the emergence of intellectual consciousness, the phenomenon of suicide has initiated not only a paradoxical confusion in those who attempt to understand, but also continues to elicit a spiritual significance in those who attempt to indulge.

To the early Greeks, those who "died before their time" were called "biaiothanatoi," and considered magical. The teachings of Doogen, the founder of the Soto Zen Sect, state "that realization of the fullest meaning of life comes only through self-sacrifice and through the negation of intellectual apprehension" (Tsunoda, 1958). Suicide has always been an accepted means of protest in Japan. Those who consider suicide a plausible alternative have been found to prefer literary geniuses like Arthur Schopenhauer, Albert Camus, Ryuunosuke Akutagaua, and Osamu Dazai who are highly suggestive and extremely accepting of suicide (Dazai, 1969, p. 284). They are also found to possess a lack of concern with social welfare and tend to view life in its absurdity.

Suicides are numerous in Shakespearean plays, and consequently color the entire realm of romantic theatre. An audience or literary critic find no fault with that, undoubtedly because suicide is a convenient manner of ending to which authors have long habituated us. Nevertheless, whenever a suicide is impinged upon our awareness we are astonished anew. For in this manner of taking leave of one's fellow man, there seems to be a disconcerting mixture of free choice and of inevitability, of resolvement and of passivity, of lucidity and of bewilderment.

Suicide holds a significant position in history, ethics, literature, and art. We cannot doubt its influence on our lives. Philosophers and theologians have been concerned with its moral character, while physicians, lawyers, and scientists continue the battle to ground its ambiguous and spiritual nature. The phenomenon of suicide has undoubtedly produced realms of literature and hoards of statistical studies that only help to confuse the issue and heighten the curiosity in those for whom suicide is a possibility.

Viewed from death certificates, insurance reports, and statistical surveys, suicide is the simple and logical consequence of ill mental health, discouragement, humiliation, rejection, revenge, or frustration. Amazingly, it is not that these explanations are continually ofered. but that they are so readily and unquestionably accepted in a world where science and everyday experience alike confirm the untrustworthiness of the obvious.

A current discernible trend that may well be a reflection of a growing psychology concern in our culture to investigate such an activity in an empirical fashion, is to seek to understand the motivations underlying

behavior within the **milieu** in which they occur. The following three works that appreciate the statistical and cultural perspective are a necessity to the eclectic suicidologist. They are: *Suicide: A Sociological and Statistical Study* (1963) by Louis I. Dumblin; *Suicide in Different Cultures* (1975), edited by Norman L. Farberow; and *Status Integration and Suicide* (1964) by Jack P. Gibbs and Walter T. Martin.

Since suicide has been documented as one of the first ten causes of death in the United States, this country and, in fact, the whole civilized world, is challenged to prevent this wastage of life and the suffering and loss associated with it. The curative powers of religious faith and ecstacy, sympathetic counseling, and psychiatric psychotherapy have been faithfully available to those who seek it. Current authors (e.g., Louis Dublin,, 1963; Edwin S. Shneidman, 1957; and Norman L. Farberow, 1961) feel that it is essential that the general public, the clergy, social workers, and doctors learn to recognize the symptons of depression, despair, isolation that may assist in the prevention of a suicide.

Be aware of the fact that the author adopts a more permissive view of death and accepts the possibility of suicide as a plausible alternative for particular individuals; but do not assume that the act of self-destruction is advocated or even encouraged. The author's view may indeed be a radical one, but deserves the right to be acknowledged in light of human rights. Because the author believes that anyone contemplating the notion of suicide is attempting to enlighten his awareness, which is in any case a frightening one, those individuals deserve the right to be supported. Anyone interested in creating a crisis program is urged to read *Suicide and Crisis Intervention* (1973) by Sheila A. Fisher, Ph.D. Anyone compelled to contemplate a suicidal act and desire emotional support, see Appendix A for a listing of crisis centers around the United States.

The first chapter, *A Collective Morality*, is an attempt to outline our collective relationship with suicide in regard to its morality. Philosophical, theological, legal, and medical viewpoints were considered as the most influential systems of thought in our time. The assumption that these systems dogmatically constitute their particular viewpoint toward suicide without regard to individual situations, existential choice, or condonement of an acceptable view of death was verified. In light of strict moral standards, inconsistencies within each particular system were revealed and a new way of viewing suicide was considered.

The second chapter, *An Attempt to Understand*, reviewed the scientific investigation of suicide. Emile Durkheim, Sigmund Freud, and Karl Menninger were considered to be the experts in the field. A critique of traditionally accepted explanations regarding the understanding of the suicidal processes, focused on apriori assumptions, generalizable diagnosis, prediction, and prevention. It was concluded that any particular

system attempting to explain human behavior must rely upon certain theoretical foundations that form the basis to make their assumptions. The notion of intentional suicide holds no place within these systems of thought and thus threaten the foundation they rest upon.

The final chapter, *A Portrait of a Suicidal Style*, expresses the author's own personal conceptualization of how suicidal behavior should be investigated. As such, a view of death must be incorporated before any attempt at understanding is begun. Secondly, the individual must be respected as unique, situated within a unique set of circumstances, before any generalizations or assumptions can be made. The phenomenology of suicide rests in the description of disposition. Despair, insecurity, and engulfment were elaborated upon as being basic to the suicidal's rationale. These are by no means exhaustive. Finally, suicide as an escape from freedom and the notion of rebirth and authenticity were touched upon, only to initiate thought and huristic questioning.

The intention of this thesis is to call forth the dogmatism that exists within our most respected systems of thought and present an interesting alternative. The phenomenon of suicide exists as a logical alternative to those who are blind to any other way of being-in-the-world. Suicide may be understood as an authentic act in reference to individuality, self-directed decision making, and creativity. In place of the restrictiveness of prevention I propose a more flexible program; one that accepts a view of death, respects individual rights, and sincerely believes in the spirituality of life and death. This is considered to be more influential and empathetically supportive to the frustrated suicidal individual.

Shotwell, William Edward, (EdS, Administration and Supervision, August, 1980)

STUDENT CONCEPTS OF SCHOOL ENVIRONMENTS IN INTEGRATED AND NON-INTEGRATED SCHOOLS

This study was an effort to compare student concepts of their school's environment in an integrated and non-integrated school. The integrated school was Henderson Junior High School, Georgia. The non-integrated school was Dawson County High School, Georgia.

Three hundred and nine students in the eighth grade classes at both schools responded to a questionnaire which reflected their attitudes about certain school situations. Fourteen subscales of the Learning Environment Inventory (LEI) were used to identify desirable and undesirable characteristics in the respective schools. Henderson Junior High had the larger eighth grade class with its 221 students.

There was a statistically significant difference in eight of the fourteen subscales compared. The F-ratio test was used to determine the level of

significance at the .05 level.

In this study integration had no adverse effects on school environment. In fact the integrated school had many more desirable characteristics than did the non-integrated school. This study possibly indicates that the organizational structure, quality and quantity of curriculum offerings, and the student's involvement have more effect on school environment than does integration.

Sims, Lee R., (EdS, Administration and Supervision, June, 1980)

A SURVEY OF NORTH GEORGIA ADMINISTRATORS IN RELATION TO: PLANNED EDUCATIONAL CHANGE THE BOMBSHELL OF THE 80's AND BEYOND!

Change is essential for the productive growth of an education system. This study was needed to determine what methods were being used by North Georgia Administrators to bring about change in their schools and to determine if the changes were effective.

A one-page, ten-question questionnaire was developed and mailed to 138 principals in the North Georgia area. The questions on the questionnaire dealt with the incidence of change in the past and the prediction of incidence of change in the future, the amount of planning that was done and will be needed to bring about change in the future, the type of change method used by principals, the amount of success principals have had in bringing about the desired change and the effectiveness of these changes.

Questionnaires were returned by 115 principals. The problem solving method of bringing about educational change was the method most used by North Georgia principals.

North Georgia principals indicated that a great deal of planning has been done in the past five years. Principals indicated that they had success in producing the desired effects through change.

A variety of responses to the frequency of change in the past and in the 1980's was given. Principals indicated that Changes would occur a little more frequently in the 1980's.

The overall conclusions of ranking change sources in the past were the same s the overall ranking of change sources in the 1980's.

Desire of the school was first; mandates from the state were second; mandates from the local level were third; mandates from the federal level were fourth; and community pressure was fifth.

Principals overwhelmingly indicated that more planning would be necessary in the future to bring about educational change.

Slate, Donald Lee, (EdS, Elementary Education, March 1980)

A COMPARISON OF STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT USING A BASAL READER CENTERED LANGUAGE ARTS PROGRAM AS OPPOSED TO THE TRADITIONAL PROGRAM

The purpose of this research project was to compare the achievement of students whose language arts instruction was centered around their basal reading program with that of students being taught in a traditional language arts program using the reader, language book, and speller in separate sequences.

One hundred and one third grade students at Lithia Springs Elementary School were given the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills (reading and language subtests) on September 25, 1978, and at the end of the year on May 14, 1979. Complete data was obtained from 43 students in the control group and 46 students in the experimental group.

The students in both groups were taught their language arts program foo two hours each day for 140 days. The control group followed the traditional method of instruction using separate reading, language and spelling books. In the experimental group, the basal was the central textbook for teaching reading, language and spelling skills.

The hypothesis tested in the study was that there would be no significant difference in reading or in language achievement between students taught using a basal-centered language arts program and students taught in a traditional program.

The data obtained concerning reading and language achievement were analyzed by using the analysis of covariance. Significance was measured at the .05 level using a two-tailed F test. The difference in scores between the groups was not significant on either the reading or language tests; therefore, the hypothesis was not rejected. The results indicated no difference in the effectiveness of basal-centered versus traditional language arts instruction.

Smallwood, William Earl, (EdS, Elementary Education, August, 1980)

A COMPARISON STUDY UTILIZING DMP MATERIALS AND METHODS IN THE TEACHING OF GEOMETRY IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

This study was an attempt to compare the achievement of students who were taught geometry by three different methods.

During the eight weeks period from March 17, 1980 through May 30, 1980, three sixth grade groups at Ringgold Intermediate School, Ringgold, Georgia were matched for ability and aptitude. This matching was accomplished by noting mean IQ and aptitude scores. Then, within each of three possible pairings of the three groups, individuals were matched pairwise on the basis of their ability and aptitude. The three teachers involved in the study taught their group for five fifty minute periods each week over an eight weeks period.

One group of fifteen subjects became the experimental group which was taught using only the Developing Mathematical Processes (DMP) program. The control group, consisting of fifteen subjects, was taught using the text *Mathematics for Mastery* published by Silver Burdett Company. The comparison group, consisting of fifteen subjects, was taught using both the text and the DMP program.

A pretest over circles and angles was administered to each group at the same time by their teacher. A posttest similar in form, though more extensive, was administered to each group simultaneously at the end of the study by their teacher. An analysis of co-variance was the statistical method used in the study. IQ was the covariate. Gain was the dependent variable.

It was concluded that the comparison group using both the textbook and the DMP methods scored higher than did either the experimental groups using only the DMP methods or the control group using only the textbook methods. The difference was significant at the .05 level of significance.

Souza, Katherine McLeod, (EdS, Secondary Education, March, 1980)

THE EFFECTS OF A SKILLS-BASED READING PROGRAM ON EIGHTH-GRADE READING SCORES ON THE GEORGIA CRITERION-REFERENCED TEST

This study was conducted to determine what effect, if any, the use of a skills-based reading program, published by Houghton Mifflin, had on achievement on the reading section of the Eighth-Grade Georgia Criterion-Referenced Test. The chi-square technique was used to test for significant difference on each test objective between the comparison group, the eighth-grade class of 1977 which had no separate reading instruction in seventh or eighth grade, the Experimental Group A, the eighth-grade only. It was also used to test for significant difference between the comparison group and Experimental Group B, the eighth-grade class of 1979 which had reading in the seventh and eighth grades. The test data reported to the school by the Georgia Department of Education were evaluated for three successive classes at a middle school in Cobb County, Georgia. The study concluded that the use of the Houghton Mifflin Reading Program did not have a significant effect on reading scores on the Eighth-Grade Criterion-Referenced Test.

Swann, James Rocky, (EdS, Secondary Education, August, 1980)

A TEACHER'S GUIDE FOR TEACHING TAYLOR COUNTY HISTORY

The purpose of this study is to make available to Taylor County social studies teachers a resource guide which can be used in the preparation of a unit or a course on Taylor County history. Since there has not been very much interest in the past in local history, it is hoped that Taylor County social studies teachers will use this guide when gathering and writing local history to build an interest in local history among the young people. At present there is only one history of Taylor County available. Hopefully this guide will be beneficial in preparing new histories of Taylor County and in providing students with new insights into their own past.

Sweatman, Carol C., (EdS, Administration and Supervision, March, 1980)

A STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF A STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM ON THE CHANGE IN COMPETENCIES OF BEGINNING TEACHERS

The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of staff development on the improvement of teacher competencies as measured by the Teacher Performance Assessment Instruments.

The null hypotheses stated in Chapter I were rejected by the results shown in Tables I and II. The staff development offered by Griffin CESA had a positive effect on the scores of teacher competencies as measured by the Teacher Performance Assessment Instrument. This was shown by the improvement measured by the total scores of the treatment group (Table I), by the improvement of the scores in specific areas in which staff development was taken by the treatment group (Table I), and by the percentage of teachers who improved their scores after participating in staff development (Table II).

Vickery, Edward R., (EdS, Administration and Supervision, June, 1980)

WHAT CITIZENS IN CATOOSA COUNTY SAY ABOUT THEIR SCHOOLS

Schools cannot exist apart from the communities in which they serve. Decisions made by the schools concerning the education of children affects the community in many ways, and it is important that citizens be informed about the school's programs and that their input is sought when decisions are to be made.

The purpose of this study was to determine the attitudes of citizens in Catoosa County about their schools. Questionnaires were mailed to a random sample of 301 persons on the Catoosa County voters' registration list. A total of ninety-five questionnaires was returned; and responses from these were analyzed and tabulated on the basis of age, sex, educational level, school district, time of residence, and the number of children in Catoosa County public schools.

Questions used on the survey instrument were patterned after those used en a national survey by George Gallup in order to allow a comparison of local attitudes with those nation-wide.

Results of the study indicate that local citizens rate their schools and teachers about the same as the national group, assigning them a grade of "C." Catoosa County citizens indicated that schools today are not providing students with an education equal to that of earlier schools.

Citizens rated discipline problems in the schools and the use of drugs and alcohol as the two biggest problems facing our schools today. They expressed by a larger margin that schools do not provide students with adequate moral and ethical training.

Respondents were equally divided on whether the schools should continue to offer a wide variety of courses or whether they should offer a few, more basic courses. They were basically in agreement that extra-curricular activities were important and felt that adequate attention was being devoted to these activities. They were in agreement that vocational education should be a part of the high school curriculum and also that a college education was important. However, they did not express satisfaction with the schools' college preparatory program.

A great majority of respondents indicated that the schools did not provide them with enough information about the schools. Most of the information they do receive was reported to come from friends and students which indicates a clear need for an organized systematic program of public information.

On the basis of the findings of this study, recommendations made to the school system were (1) that there is a need for the school system to develop a method for continuously determining the attitudes and opinions of citizens about specific issues in our schools; and (2) that a systematwide public relations program should be implemented to better inform the public about their schools.

Wingo, W. Bruce, (EdS, Secondary Education, August, 1980)

THE WRITING OF *GEORGIA IN AMERICAN SOCIETY*

This paper is an explanation of the reasoning behind and the process of writing a new textbook dealing with the study of Georgia. It considers the problems facing junior high school teachers who are forced to teach a subject without the proper text. The paper then details the steps and rationale behind the actual writing of a textbook designed for junior high school students. Finally, the paper offers advice to teachers who decide to write material for the classroom.

Claxton, Robert H.

Series editor, West Georgia College *Studies in the Social Sciences.*

Associate Editor, *Annals* of the South Eastern Council on Latin American Studies (1980-1981).

"Climate and History: An Introduction," *Environmental Review Bibliographic Supplement* III (1979-1980), pp. 89-103

"Drought in Nineteenth Century Venezuela," paper presented October 11, 1980, Pacific Coast Council on Latin American Studies, Laguna Beach.

"Notable Late-Season Guatemalan Rain Storms in Historic Perspective," paper presented November 24, 1980, South Eastern Division, Association of American Geographers, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg.

Powell, Bobby

"Simulating Solar Eclipses" with George Bagwell, The Science Teacher *46* (April, 1979), 42.

"Combinations of Third-order Elastic Constants of Lead," with M.J. Skove, Journal of Applied Physics *51* (June, 1980), 3433.

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The purpose of this publication is to provide encouragement for faculty research and to make available results of such activity. The *Review,* Published annually, accepts original scholarly work and creative writing. West Georgia College assumes no responsibility for contributors' views. The style guide is Kate L. Turabian's, *A Manual for Writers.* Although the *Review* is primarily a medium for the faculty of West Georgia College, other sources are invited.

An annual bibliography includes doctoral dissertations, major recitals and major art exhibits. Theses and articles in progress or accepted are not listed. A faculty member's initial listing is comprehensive and appears in the issue of the year of his employment. The abstracts of all master's theses and educational specialist's projects written at West Georgia College are included as they are awarded.

READABILITY OF INTRODUCTORY ACCOUNTING TEXTBOOKS

by G. A. Swanson and Al Hartgraves***

A problem confronting accounting educators is the disproportionately large number of student failures in introductory accounting courses. (Similar problems are faced by educators in several other disciplines.) Many reasons are offered to explain this problem: inexperienced and ill-prepared graduate students often teach the course; better qualified teachers are not challenged by this course; non-accounting majors do not see the relevance of debits and credits to their planned careers; the textbooks are difficult to understand, etc. Any scientific examination of the introductory accounting course failure problem will invariably lead to investigation of the three main components of the classroom learning situation: the students, the teachers, and the instructional materials. All of the elements which make up the accounting education scenario can be empirically analyzed; however, this research is aimed only at examining certain critical aspects of the textbooks used in teaching introductory accounting.

If accounting is, in fact, the language of business — as we accounting educators like to declare to our beginning accounting students — then our instructional materials should be written to reflect this fact. At most colleges and universities the introductory accounting course is taught at the sophomore level and is usually the first experience the student has in the study of business topics. Concepts and terms introduced in this course are essential to the understanding of other business disciplines. If the introductory accounting course is to be successful in its mission, first, the textbooks used in the course must be written on a level compatible with the reading level of the students and, secondly, must be written to teach the language most often used in the world of business and industry.

Purpose

The purpose of this research was to evaluate selected textbooks used in introductory accounting courses for compatibility with student reading levels and for compatibility of word usage with vocabulary used in the practical application of business administration.

No attempt was made to establish the actual reading levels of the sample texts. Instead, we felt that it would be more meaningful for our purposes to use the scores from selected readability tests to compare the **relative** difficulty of the materials.

To evaluate the degree to which selected entry level texts use the language that the students will face in the job market, we compared the

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word usage in the texts to the business use word frequency list developed by Devern Perry.

We are indebted to Professors Don Reese and Ray Smith of the University of Tennessee for the use of their copyrighted "Analysis of Text Material" computer program. Dr. Reese provided us with expert consultation on the analysis of the textual material.

Background on Readability Studies

Readability measurement has been investigated and applied in educational research for many years, using many different techniques. Probably the most popular technique used in recent years is the Flesch Reading Ease Score which measures written material based on average sentence length and difficulty of the words used as measured by the number of syllables.[1] Using a formula, a score is assigned to the reading material which can be translated into the education level required to read the material with ease. Numerous validation studies of the Flesch readability formula have been conducted which slow high correlations between readability as measured by the formula, and readership, readng speed, comprehension, and retention.

The major weakness in the Flesch technique is its failure to consider the appropriateness of the words used. Theoretically, a given passage could score very highly using the Flesch technique, but in fact be totally incomprehensible by the reader.

The Dale readability technique evaluates readability based on average sentence length and whether or not the words used in the reading material are on a list of the 3,000 most often used words.[2],[3] Like the Flesch score, The Dale score is interpreted by comparing it to an education level scale. In validation studies the developer found that his formula predictions correlated .92 with judgments of readability experts, and .90 with the reading grades of children and adults. A major weakness of the Dale technique in evaluating reading material in business literature is that it is based on a vocabulary of three thousand words used in **general** conversation and communication.

As a part of a study at the University of North Dakota, Devern Perry developed a list of 12,109 different words used in business letters,[4] ranking the words according to frequency of use. It is not intended to be a list of

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[1]Flesch, Rudolph. *How to Test Readability*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1951.

[2]Dale, Edgar and Chall, Jeanne S. "A Formula for Predicting Readability," *Educational Research Bulletin*, January 21, 1948, pp. 11-20, 28.

[3]Dale, Edgar and Chall, Jeanne S. "A Formula for Predicting Readability: Instructions," *Education Research Bulletin*, February 18, 1948, pp. 37-46.

[4]Perry, Davern Jay. "An Analytical Comparison of the Relative Work Combination Frequencies of Business Correspondence with Phrase Frequencies of Selected Shorthand Testbooks." Unpublished dissertation. The University of North Dakota, 19

technical words, but includes such words as "the" and "your" which are used with frequency in business correspondence. A break-down of the list into the most frequently used 200 words, 500 words, 1,000 words, and 5,000 words gives the researcher greater precision in evaluating the vocabulary of the reading material. The study included 2,061 business letters with a total of 317,396 running words.

Methodology

The three tests of readability and word selection, previously discussed, were applied to a total of twenty one-hundred-word textual samples from six leading introductory textbooks. Three samples were selected from each of the six textbooks, three of which were two-semester textbooks and three of which were one-semester financial accounting textbooks.

The following section presents the results of the three readability and word selection tests: the Perry Test, which evaluates only word selection; the Flesch Test, which evaluates readability based on number of syllables per word and number of words per sentence; and finally the Dale Test, which evaluates readability based on word familiarity, number of syllables per word and the number of words per sentence.

Perry Test

The Perry Test results are presented in Exhibit I which shows the percent of the words in each sample which are included in Perry's first 200 words, 500 words, 1,000 words, and 5,000 words. Sample 1 of the Niwonger and Fess text in Exhibit I would be interpreted as follows: 57% of the words included in the sample are found in Perry's list of 200 most frequently used words, 69% of the sample are found in the list of 500 most frequently used words, etc. One of the difficulties in using the Perry list is the lack of definitive standards for evaluating test results. The best available standard is Perry's original list in which he found that the 10 most used words comprised about 25% of the total words, the 100 most used words comprised about 50% of the total words, and the 1,000 most used words comprised about 75% of the total words. Applying Perry's original list to the accounting textbook sample tests (Exhibit I), it was observed that about 50% of the sample words were included in the Perry 200 word list. This finding suggests that, when compared with the Perry 100 word list, the textbooks samples compare unfavorably with the 50% standard. However, when compared with the Perry 1,000 word list, the textbook samples compared favorably to the standard of 75%. Two-semester textbook samples overall reflected somewhat higher percents than did the one-semester texts, thus indicating better word selection by the two-semester textbook authors.

Flesch Test

The Flesch Test results are presents in Exhibit II, along with a presentation of the Flesch Formula. Note in the formula that the variable values for the number of syllables per 100 words and the number of words

per sentence are subtracted from the constant 206.835. Therefore, the greater number of syullables and the longer the sentences, the lower the Flesch score. Accordingly, the lower the Flesch score (the reading ease score), the more difficult the reading material.

Unlike the Perry tests, which seemed to favor two-semester books on the basis of word selection, the Flesch tests indicated slightly greater reading ease for the one-semester text overall, but the difference is too slight to be conclusive. The overall difference is caused primarily by the substantial spread between the Flesch scores for Niswonger/Fess and Hobbs/Moore. The other texts scored quite closely to their sister publication (i.e., Meigs/Meigs with Meigs/Johnson and Welsch/Anthony with Pyle/White Larson).

Dale Tests

Exhibit III presents the Dale Tests of the text samples. The Dale Test evaluates readability against a standard vocabulary and on the basis of sentence length. Notice in the Dale Formula on Exhibit III that the variable values are **added** to the constant of 3.635; thus, unlike the Flesch Score, the higher the Dale score, the more difficult the reading material. The Dale tests indicated a higher level of readability (lower score) for the two-semester texts than for the one-semester texts. More important is the finding that under the Dale test every sample tested resulted in either a "difficult" or "fairly difficult" rating. These would be comparable to "11-12 years" and "13-15 years" of reading achievement, respectively.

General Remarks

The most striking finding of this research is that the readability tests conducted reflect generally a level of reading difficulty that is beyond the reading skills of a large portion of the students taking introductory courses. Conclusive data are not available concerning the reading level of college students; however, every source examined on this issue indicated that a substantial percentage of all college students possess a sub-college reading level. The research presented in this paper suggests that most students would be incapable of reading many accounting textbooks.

For purpose of evaluating the relative readability of alternative textbooks, this research also suggests that caution should be exercised in the use and interpretation of readability models. As evidenced here, the various accepted models do not always produce similar results. Consequently, we would suggest that in selecting and utilizing a model, one should be certain that the measurement objectives and the readability model used are compatible.

Another caveat should be mentioned. Undue reliance should not be placed on any readability test; there are many important learning features of textbooks which none of the accepted readability measures takes into consideration. Moreover, there are many non-textbook factors (such as supplementary materials) which may have an important impact on learning.

Several observations and recommendations are appropriate in view of the findings of this study. First, it should never be assumed that textbooks are readable by the average student. On the contrary, evidence indicates that many textbooks are too difficult for the intended student audience. Consequently, it is important for college faculty and administrators to exercise care in selecting textbooks to ensure that the difficulty level of the text material matches the reading competency of the students.

Textbook authors play the critical role in determining the readability level of textbooks.[5] Authors, therefore, should be particularly sensitive to the reading competency of their intended audience and should adjust their textual compositions accordingly. Textbook publishers also have an important role in providing readable textbook materials. Although most publishers often use readability tests to evaluate proposed new textbooks, there is no evidence to suggest that publishers place high priority on ensuring that textbooks are written at the appropriate readability level. Most publishers base their acceptance of textbooks on the reviews and recommendations of other faculty who are usually not qualified to evaluate the readability of the material. We would recommend that publishers take a more formalized approach to the evaluation of textbook readability and that the reading level of new textbooks be determined by the publisher and published in textbook promotion materials.

The readability problem obviously is not limited to specific courses or disciplines; faculty and administrators in all disciplines should be aware of the potential problem of incompatibility of text material and student reading skills. Two of the tests illustrated in this article (the Flesch and Dale Tests) can be used to evaluate readability in all disciplines. The Perry Test, however, would be most appropriate only for business related disciplines. With the aid of computer programs, evaluation of readability is significantly simplified, making it practical for colleges and universities to adopt readability level evaluation requirements for all new textbook adoptions.

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[5]Osborne, Donald L. and Barnes, Michael. "Reading Levels of Freshman and Sophomore students and the Readability of Their Textbooks," *Reading Improvement*, Summer 1979, pp. 158-162.

INDIA'S STRUGGLE TO ELIMINATE POVERTY

*by Lee Jan Jan**

When people who come from developed countries look at India, their immediate impression is one of vast poverty. They see the majority of the people suffering from hunger, ill health, and misery. They see the whole country as technologically backward, people as uneducated or ignorant, the government as disorganized and incompetent, religions and philosophies as outmoded, impractical, and unable to adjust to the survival of the contemporary world, and thus as a hindrance to progress.

The reactions to the above impression depend on the individual. Some see great opportunity for business exploitation; the situation may provide a market for low quality products, dated machinery or technology, while it provides cheap labor and natural resources. Some worry that vast poverty may be a good breeding ground for communism. The lack of technology to defend the country may eventually lead it to become an incorporated part of the communist block, which will present a great loss to the free world because of its massive land and population. Some feel the living conditions of the people are intolerable and inhumane. Some drastic improvements need to be made, whether they come from the western industrial, capitalistic model, or a bloody revolution along the Chinese communist model.

With a group of fifteen college teachers the author participated in a summer program titled "Social and Economic Development through Science and Technology" in India. The program was sponsored by the U.S. Educational Foundation in India, and the U.S. Department of Education, and was managed by the Fulbright House in India. As a group we travelled through India for six weeks, visiting factories in the cities, farm and cottage industries in rural areas and holding seminars with academic and research institution faculties. We also visited different governmental agencies and their projects.

Indeed, the author saw the kind of poverty that is well known: for example, people living in the streets in Calcutta with only a faucet on the sidewalk providing water for their drinking, cooking, and other necessities. It rained the night we arrived in Calcutta. Those people had to roll up their belongings and stand under the eaves. The author also saw families living under upside down boats on the beach in Bombay, against a background of skyscrapers. There were also families living for years in the lobbies and on the platforms of railroad stations in Bombay and Delhi with no hope of finding a place to stay. In the rural areas most people were living in straw huts, with mud walls and floors, a few pots and pans for carrying water and cooking, and a bed roll to sleep on.

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According to Professor Nilakantha Rath, joint director of the Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics (GIPE) at Pune, 40% of India's population live under a condition of subsistence, which means they can only survive and do not have adequate nutrition. Fish and meat are beyond the means of the majority of the people. The annual per capita income was about $146 in 1975-1976.

The problem of poverty as seen by Professor Rath exists because 70% of India's population depend on agriculture for a living and land resources are limited, with no virgin land to be developed. The alternative, to increase per acre unit production, is not very successful because of the lack of technology and irrigation. The agricultural growth rate has been 2.6% for the past thirty-year period. Unemployment is very high. Professor Rath considers the current estimation of unemployment inadequate and grossly underestimated. According to the Statistical Outline of India there are 12.7 million currently registered job seekers. Professor K. Dandekar, also of GIPE, thinks the problem of poverty and unemployment is certainly aggravated by an ever growing population, from 641 million in 1978-1979, to 654 million in 1979-1980, an increase of 13 million in one year's time, while food grains production was down from 131.4 million tons in 1978-1979 to 122 million tons in 1979-1980. To alleviate the problem, Professor Dandekar indicated that population control through family planning is the most urgent measure. Family planning had not been very successful until the 1975 Emergency was declared; when administrative efficiency was tightened and coercive measures were used, the effectiveness of family planning improved appreciably. Overall, before the Emergency, the percentage of couples protected from pregnancy by sterilization was 12.4% and by all methods together was 15.7% while during the Emergency, the percentage of couples protected by sterilization was 20.4% and by all methods was 23.5%. After the Emergency the percentage decreased: 19.8% of the couples were protected by sterilization and 21.6% by all methods. However, this and other policies of the government caused Mrs. Gandhi and the ruling Congress Party to lose the 1977 election. Professor Dandekar felt force, as used in the Emergency, could work only to a certain degree, and once relaxed, old habits tend to return. She also hoped that all political parties could come together at least on certain programs such as family planning, and let elections not be fought on issues of such importance to the country. Also needed is a commitment by political parties that certain freedoms of the individual will not be tampered with; people can be helped in desired directions with constant, gradual educative processes. Meanwhile the infant mortality rate has to be reduced; female literacy and the status of women in the household and society have to be raised.

Professor Patvardhan and Professor Rath of GIPE discussed the possibiity of increasing production by using science and technology. The problem here was that the proper science and technology have to be developed and transmitted to the people who use them. The expedient way

is by importing the science and technology that suit the needs of the country to begin with; later through imitation, assimilation, adaptation, the way may eventually lead to indigenous science and technology. However, there are many pitfalls in this approach. Imported technologies are primarily designed to suit the domestic demand and conditions in developed countries, in particular the life styles and capital-rich labor-scarce situation. When transferred to developing countries these technologies tend to restrict the employment that is generated by investments in industrialization; this increasing unemployment, particularly in rural areas. aggravates inequalities and poverty.

Developed countries have met the minimum needs of the majority of their population. They are now focused on increasing levels of affluence, concentrating on luxury products, which are ever changing in appearance and form, but similar in function and content. As a result of this type of consumption, unnecessary resource depletion becomes inevitable. The experience of developing countries with this type of technology shows that when foreign technologies take root, they can succeed only in creating small pockets of developed-county-like environments amidst vast areas of deprivation. The benefits of the imported technology tend to be restricted to small sections of the population without trickling down to the poor majority.

Another problem is that reliance on pure growth in terms of gross national product, without consideration of the specific nature of the goods and services that are produced and of the sections of society that enjoy these products, has often meant increasing disparities between the rich and poor, and between urban and rural areas. One should not neglect the social (distributive) justice which is a necessary element that accompanies growth.

Developing countries seeking political independence and self-reliance have to keep in mind the following when they are importing technology: (1) the tendency of the technology suppliers to use it as a tool to influence or control the recipients in all other aspects of their activities; and (2) the tendency of the technology supplier to exploit and restrict the growth of indigenous technology, when collaboration is under the restrictive conditions.

There are also debates on what type of science and technology should have priority. Faculty members and researchers we talked to held different views. Some felt that the kind of technology that would directly benefit the people in general should have the higher priority. For example, researchers in the Indian Institute of Management in Ahmedabad stress bio-gas technology, which enables multiple and efficient use of waste material, like cowdung. Because it is indigenous, simple and useful, it can benefit the people in general, especially the people living in rural areas, who are the majority. It can also cut down the reliance on imported oil. Some more extreme researchers working with this technology view the highly technical

sophisticated space program and some fundamental research as irrelevant. But scientists and faculty members working at the Indian Space Research Organization and Space Application Center in Ahmesdabad, Tata Institute of Fundamental Research, BhaBha Atomic Research Center in Bombay, amd Jadavpur University in Calcutta, defend their position by arguing that India needs to keep pace with the world's scientific development. India also needs to retain and develop its scientists by providing them with a congenial working and learning environment. Otherwise India will suffer as even more severe brain drain than currently exists. Besides, scientific and technological independence can be achieved only by developing sound indigenous fundamental science, and national security is tightly tied to space programs.

In the process of making science take root and flourish in a country and benefit the population, not only does a scientific or technological elite group have to be established, the general public also has to be made aware of the issues in order to provide support. The public also has to be educated to be able to utilize the technology. Education becomes again a prerequisite to the success of development of science and technology.

In education the first problem encountered in India is the diversity of languages and low literacy rate. According to Pundalik, Professor of Sociology at the University of Poona, there are sixteen linguistic states in India, with sixteen major languages and 2,000 dialects. There are six official written languages, not including English which is also an official language. The literacy rate is about 40%, which means individuals who know any one of the above mentioned official written language would be considered literate. Two percent of the population know English. Many of the elementary schools we visited first teach pupils in their particular local language, and beginning in fourth grade, introduce English.

The diversity of language makes uniform education and evaluation of achievement more difficult and costly. In addition, the low literacy rate makes knowledge and technological information diffusion and transmission through mass communication media difficult. India also faces the same problem as developed countries—the uneven distribution of qualified teachers leaves the rural areas underserved. Currently 80% of school age children enter primary school; 10% of them enter high school; and 70% of the high school graduates enter college. Formal education is one of the most important routes for the advancement of social status. Because of India's liberal arts tradition in higher education, there is a surplus of intellectual elites, but a shortage of technical personnel.

A single unified language certainly has advantages, but due to political and other technical factors it is not possible in the foreseeable future. It also may have undesirable effects. Language is the main vehicle in carrying on the culture. Therefore the elimination of other languages may also eliminate some of those distinct cultures, resulting in a significant loss of the richness of Indian culture.

Besides all the practical considerations in the development of science and technology to solve the problem of poverty, there are also philosophical considerations. India basically has a non-materialistic culture, as exemplified by the late Mahatma Gandhi. He believed the economic progress in industrial civilation clashed with real progress. Real progress is spiritual and moral growth, and this is the path that leads to happiness, because happiness is largely a mental condition. The modern industrial civilization can only increase material comforts, which are not conducive to moral growth, because they lead to an ever expanding pursuit of material desire and a system of life-corroding competition and propagation of immorality.

The legacy of this cultural tradition can be seen among the people we met on the streets and the people we visited in their homes. The conversations usually centered around some religious or philosophical issue, sometimes politics, but rarely concerning material things. Some of the homes we visited belong to very rich families. They were owners of factories and big hotels, but the home and furnishings were very simple. Those people certainly have the money to live more extravagantly. The reason for not doing so was not that they do not know differently; they do, as they have travelled to the U.S. and some other parts of the world and have seen luxurious things. They chose not to, because of their philosophical and religious beliefs. They believed in minimizing material gains and keeping life simple. This general attitude is not compatible with technological development.

India's frame of reference about time is a very expansive one. They feel change, if it ever happens, should be gentle and gradual. It probably takes generations. They do not believe in drastic changes. The peace-loving Hindu religion and Gandhi's doctrine of non-violence certainly prohibit violent or bloody change.

Even though India has a tradition of empire and a caste system, the empire was never strongly united. The people in different states and local villages have their own autonomous organizations, governing their own business. The caste system now actually serves the function of helping lower caste people gain upward mobility by block voting and social reform, However, the caste system is gradually breaking down, due to social mobility (horizontal and vertical) and governmental regulations, such as the Untouchability Offences Act of 1955, which prohibits any kind of social, occupational, or business discrimination.

India is working on its problems. Our group saw governmental projects in revitalizing the slum areas in Calcutta. We saw community organization work in the villages near Bangalore. We saw different irrigation and agricultural projects. We saw bio-gas, crop improvement, and nuclear and space research in different institutions. The most impressive aspect is the enthusiasm and pride the people take in what they are doing.

In visiting the industries, we talked to the employers and employees.

There appears to be more harmony than conflict between them. Employers seem to have a genuine concern for the employee, and therefore more devotion from the employees. In visiting schools, we saw bi-lingual instruction and children proud that they have the ability to speak more than one language.

These are very encouraging signs. India will find its way, at its own pace. There is no need for people from the so-called developed countries to come in to make hasty suggestions about what India should do, while ignoring their own social problems such as poverty, discrimination, environmental pollution, and energy depletion at home. India is not going to be an aggressor, as it has never been one. India is also too big to be conquered. India is not going to become a communist country either, because India's culture is not compatible with violence and dictatorship.

Tonal Contrast in the Imagery of Robert Frost

*by Charles L. Daniel**

That Robert Frost was skilled at creating imagery is apparent to even the casual reader of his work. Good imagery was so important to him that often he constructed a poem around a central image, and he used imagery as a vehicle to carry meaning. An examination of his imagery shows several aspects to be important, but none is more important than the visual. His imagery leads the reader to **see** clearly and realistically. Further examination of this aspect reveals an interesting use of some qualities of color to produce the impressions he sought.

Basically, Frost's visual imagery relies on tone more than on hue. That is to say he relies more on light and dark or white and black to create his imagery than on other colors in the spectrum. He was fond of the black and white drawings of his friend, J. J. Lankes, and seemed to prefer pictures which emphasize line more than color. Kathleen Morrison says that Frost was color blind.[1] An inability to distinguish colors or an insensitivity to hues might have influenced his reliance on tone. Whatever Frost's physical visual condition, however, he used tonal contrast in an artistic and creative way which provides initial delight to the reader and establishes an avenue into experience from which wisdom later emerges.

All of this is not to say that the reader never finds a reference to hue in Frost's imagery, but such references do not aid the poet in conveying the nuances of human experience in nearly as important a capacity as does tone. When Frost deals with hue, it is often in a stereotyped way as with the "universal blue" and "local green" of "The Middleness of the Road,"[2] or in a matter-of-fact way as in the phrase "a paste of pigment in our eyes" used to describe a rainbow in "Iris by Night." He sometimes ascribes color to ephemeral objects such as flowers or butterflies, and at least once he shows color to be only an illusion, when in "Blueberries" he demonstrates that the berries are not blue, but black.[3] "Fragmentary Blue" perhaps reveals most clearly his attitude toward hue. In this poem he discusses the color blue (and perhaps by implication also other vivid hues). He says that blue belongs to heaven, not earth, and that in flower or bird or butterbly our desire is whetted for more.[4] Hue, however, comes to man only in minuscule ways, lying really beyond his ability to understand or experience significantly in this life, and Frost does not delve very deeply into any

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[1]Kathleen Morrison, *Robert Frost: A Pictorial Chronicle* (New York: Holt, 1974), p. 34.

[2]Robert Frost, *Complete Poems of Robert Frost* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964, p. 547.

[3]Ibid., p. 78

[4]Ibid., p. 267.

other. Hue, then, might help to mark the boundaries of man's sensations, but it does not enter into his experience in an integral way as does his awareness of tonal variations.

For Frost, tonal extremes denote ultimates in man's experience. He sometimes uses tonal contrasts to portray permanent or constantly recurring elements. Dark and light or black and white and gradations of these tones are always with us. A sunset may or may not be brilliant red. but shades of gray are always there. Night and light are constants. Summer or winter human experience finds that tones remain and hues disappear. Night, is, of course, a recurring reality. For one living in New England, so also is snow. Frost often creates vivid tonal contrast by picturing night and snow together. In "The Onset" the contrast is underlined when "gathered snow lets down as white/As may be in dark woods."[5] It should be noted that this contrast occurs always "on a fated night." The snowfall, then, is a predetermined fact in man's existence.

"Desert Places" begins with the same two elements, "Snow alling and night falling fast, oh, fast."[6] Here, however, another consideration of tone, especially of tonal contrast, is important. Frost uses the extremes of tone, dark and white, in an almost contradictory way to signify the whole of man's experience. That is, he uses opposites to create unity. If one goes as far as his experience will allow in one direction and then the same in the opposite direction, he finds himself at the same point. Man's life is lived in the fluctuation between the extremes or in a consideration of them both at once as in the poem above. Here both night and snow represent loneliness: "And lonely as it is that lonliness/Will be more lonely ere it will be less/A blanker whiteness of benighted snow/With no expression, nothing to express."[7] A blank whiteness is relatively the same as a blank darkness. It should be noted too that this is *"**benighted** snow"* (italics mine) and that the night and the snow both **fall** on man as if they emanated from a common place. In "Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening," these two elements appear again. Here, however, man's mood is somewhat different. Here "The woods are lovely, dark, and deep."[8] The snow that is filling up the woods adds to their loveliness, and by contrast points up their darkness, but still the two elements unite to create their impression of loveliness, and an aesthetic unity pervades the scene.

Light and dark function in a most interesting way to create a sense of unity also in two other Frost poems — "Come In" and "Take Something Like a Star." In the former poem, categories of light and dark are sharply

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[5]Ibid., p. 278.

[6]Ibid., p. 386.

[7]Ibid., p. 386.

[8]Ibid., p. 275.

drawn in the image of an open starry sky on the one side and the dark woods on the other. The thrush's song from deep within the woods beckons to the poet to "come in/To the dark and lament,"[9] but he chooses the light of the stars instead. Here, then, the opposite symbolic natures of light and dark seem to be emphasized along with their counterparts in the moods of man. **It appears that unity is lacking.** Darkness symbolizes man's lamentation; light, his joy. But just as this dichotomy of symbolism seems to have worked itself out, an artistic ambiguity is noticed which destroys the simplicity of the apparent categories. The third stanza of the poem reads "The last of the light of the sun/That had died in the west/Still lived for one song more/In a thrush's breast."[10] The light of the sun, then, is transmuted in the bird's breast to a song which "shines" out of the darkness. It is light in the darkness of the woods just as the stars are light in the darkness of the night sky outside — a true unity since the parts of the dichotomy which seemed opposite are now found to be the same. Further ambiguity of the symbolism occurs also. If we consider the darkness to symbolize lamentation and light to symbolize joy, the "light" of the bird's song puzzles us because it is an invitation not to joy but to enter the dark and be sad. Light and dark are both important parts of man's sensation, but they are so melded in his experience that he cannot separate them so as to choose one and not the other. He chooses light only to find that he has also chosen darkness and that the darkness he has rejected contains light. A similar relationship occurs in "Take something Like A Star" in which Frost says to the star, "We grant your loftiness the right/To some obscurity of cloud—/It will not do to say of night/Since dark is what brings out your light."[11] Here the poet openly states the paradox: opposites do not cancel out each other, but each makes it possible for the other to exist—a converging of opposites into a unified experience.

Besides the representation of permanence and unity, however, references to tonal extremes convey a sense of the supernatural. Such references are always vague in Frost. They lie, however, within the scope of man's experience and thoughts, if not within reach of his understanding. Images of this sort occur in three poems: "For Once, Then, Something," "A Loose Mountain" and "Design." In "For Once, Then, Something" an observer looking down a well sees a white substance beneath the water. He is puzzled as to whether it is truth, a pebble of quartz, or something else. He cannot discern its nature, and the reader is left with an impression that it lies beyond the observer's understanding. In "A Loose Mountain," the poet speasks of light coming from a night sky in the form of the star

[9]Ibid., p. 446.

[10]Ibid., p. 575.

[11]Ibid., p. 487.

shower, Leonid. He interprets these "lights" as ammunition used by some mysterious, heartless and enormous power which he calls "Outer Black"[12] who holds sovereignty over night. This power pelts the lights at mankind because man has used artificial light to combat the darkness. The character of the "Outer Black," however, is never developed beyond vagueness. Thus white in one poem and black in the other symbolize the supernatural. In addition to these references one of Frost's most interesting images, comes in the poem "Design." Frost uses white in this image as a symbol of death in a way reminiscent of the use Melville made of white in "The Whiteness of the Whale" in *Moby Dick*. The reader is told explicitly that part of the white in this image is an abnormal white in that the "blue and innocent heal-all"[13] plant has turned white for some unknown reason. The scene is made up of three components — the heal-all, a snow-drop spider, and a white moth. The spider is on the heal-all holding the moth. Frost calls them all "characters of death and blight."He then asks what brought them together, suggesting that it was a "design of darkness." Again, however, this reference to a malevolent supernatural force is left vague. Although it functions at the center of man's experience and man observes it, he does not understand it.

It is apparent, then, that although Frost emphasizes hue occasionally in his imagery, it suggests elements which are ephemeral, illusory, or unimportant to man's experience; and hue is often presented in a stereotyped or matter-of-fact way. On the other hand, Frost relies on tone and especially tonal contrast as material from which to create imagery which captures the reader's attention and leads him ultimately to the meaning of the poem. The image delights the reader with its realism and accuracy. He loses himself in the vision and gives attention totally to the elements of the image. These elements symbolize important qualities in man's experience. They remind him of factors which are permanent or which recur regularly to him; they give him a satisfying insight into an underlying unity in opposites; or they lead him through these real elements in his experience to the limits of his understanding, forcing him to leave his mind open to the existence to the limits of forces both within and beyond his experience. His delight in the image, then, leads him to the wisdom of the poem; and Frost relies largely on the tonal qualities of black and white to create that imagery.

[12]Ibid., p. 396.

CHARISMA IN LITERATURE: AN EXAMINATION OF FICTIONAL CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP

*by Daniel Brantley**

"Charisma in Literature" is intended to present, within the brief space of an article, a concrete analysis of two novels, *The Brothers Karamazov* and *1984*. The significance of these works is that they provide insights regarding charisma. However, prior to the consideration of the two novels' portrayal of charismatic leadership, a brief general statement about the charismatic individual in literature is in order.

The phenomenon of charisma is mentioned in many works of fiction, although the term "charisma" and "charismatic" are rarely applied to the characters and their relations with and among each other.

In the Bible there is the charismatic leadership of the prophets, judges, God-anointed-kings, messiahs, and apostles. Ancient sources for charismatic tales are the recorded deeds of great heroes. There are, for instance, the epics of Homer (the *Illiad* and *Odyssey*), Vergil's *Aeneid,* Germanic sagas, Celtic tales, and poems by unknown poets such as *Beowulf* and *Song of Roland.*

In the early history of charismatic literature, the most frequently repeated story is of a hero, usually a warrior, who is extraordinarily brave. Hercules is a prototype of this figure. A charismatic legend, as any legend or myth, relies little on authenticity for its effectiveness. The meaning of a legend is related to the core of a community's self-perception. It is the community's truth, a truth which at times is sacrilegious or fatal to question. The heroes one admires give forth myths spontaneously: Plutarch notes in his *Noble Lives* that without Achilles and the *Illiad*, Alexander the Great would not have undertaken the conquest of the East. Youth has always recognized the charismatic quality of certain fictional characters and some youths have adopted them as their models, and sometimes in maturity (for example, Alexander the Great and Napoleon Bonaparte) have had the inspiration to realize their dream of becoming heroes themselves.

When myths—particularly of the hero variant—become spent and lose their efficacy, they often are written down and become literature. The process involves the collection of myths and legends and their classification as mythology. Poets shape mythology into sagas or epics, and priests incorporate its substance into holy books to nourish a religion. Where they are part of an oral tradition, they become the tales told by the elders, who introduce them into the realm of folklore.

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Here, the concern is with two fictional treatments of charisma. In the case of Dostoyevsky's Grand Inquisitor and Christ Jesus, the conflict is between revolutionary and institutionalized charisma. On the other hand, Orwell's Big Brother raises the issue of whether or not charisma can be artificially created.

In *The Brothers Karamazov*, Fyodor Dostoyevsky presents the reader with two views of charisma—in the prisoner and the Inquisitor, respectively, the revolutionary charisma of the extraordinarily endowed individual with a mission and the individual who holds a charismatic office.[1]

"The Grand Inquisitor" is a story within a story. It is a parable told by Ivan Karamazov, the protagonist, who is an intellectual and atheist. Ivan is concerned with the answers to two questions: does humanity still need a savior? Can mankind still signify to it that which primarily makes a savior (charismatic leader) of him? Ivan believes the answers to both questions are **no**. And, he tells the tale of "The Grand Inquisitor" to his borther Alyosha, a priest, in order to convince him of the impossibility of revolutionary religious leadership in today's world.

In Ivan Karamazov's vision of the resurrected Christ, the charismatic founder of Christianity is not allowed to speak, because the Inquisitor has told "Him He hasn't the right to add anything to what He has said of old."[2] Moreover, the Inquisitor, as the representative of established authority (political as well as religious), rejects Christ because Christ constitutes a threat to the **status quo**. Christ is told that he is no longer needed by humanity. Christ gave an example to mankind; this is what the church too has done. The difference between the two examples is that the church's example (its teaching about salvation) is more easily obtainable than Christ's. Therefore, the church by setting a new lower standard has made it possible for men and women to believe that they are able to obtain salvation if they would conform to its dogma. Thus, according to the Inquisitor, a majority of people are happy for the first time because the church places salvation within the reach of most people. This was not the case when Christ originally shared his inspiration. That inspiration, an ideal, succeeded in frustrating people. The Inquisitor makes clear to Christ that the church will not permit him to undo the good that it has achieved. Christ's insistance on salvation on the old terms would only disappoint and make unhappy a majority of humanity, and he will not find followers as readily as before.

There is, of course, reason to challenge the judgment of the Inquisitor with respect to Christ's chances of generating a new charismatic leader-

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[1]Fyodor Dostoyevsky. *The Brothers Karamazov*, translated by Constance Garnett (New York: Random House, 1933).

[2]Ibid., p. 260.

follower authority relationship. The charismatic criterion was established by Max Weber, a major figure in modern sociological literature. Weber judged authority relationships by their source, that is, the power wielded by a charismatic leader is derived from a source of different from that of a traditional ruler, be he a tyrant or a king, and equally different from the power of a leader selected by means of leagal/ rational procedures.[3] Weber in his work recognizes that charismatic authority is a type of rulership resting on popular enthusiasm and acceptance of its existence. As such, it is fundamentally different from the other two types of authority dealt with by Weber, namely, traditional and rational-legal. There are passages in "The Grand Inquisitor" which clearly point to the fact that people of the Inquisitor's time believe that they still need a savior or charismatic leader. Ivan's resurrected Christ, who comes softly and unobserved, is recognized as a charismatic figure. According to Ivan, the crowd's response is both charismatic and spontaneous: the people are irresistibly drawn to him, they welcome him with cries of hosanah, and they expect him to perform miracles, and he performs the miracle of raising a child from the dead.[4] The charismatic response of the crowd is witnessed by the Inquisitor, who, in Ivan's own words, "sees everything."[5]

Yet the Inquisitor is not impressed with what he has seen. Indeed, he orders the arrest and imprisonment of the man who only moments before had awed the crowd, who has in a very short time (a matter of hours) turned a mob, which had gathered to watch the burning of heretics, into a charismatic following. Because of Christ's own silence the reader will never know why Christ allowed himself to be taken and made a prisoner. Perhaps this question is not important, at least not as important as the question which deals with why the crowd allowed its charismatic leader to be taken away from it. The answer to this question is suggested by the Inquisitor, "man was," according to the Inquisitor, "created a rebel; and how can rebels be happy?"[6] The Inquisitor believes he has the answer. He says:

> There are three powers, three powers alone able to conquer and hold captive for ever the conscience of these impotent rebels for their happiness—these forces are miracles, mystery and authority. Thou [addressing Christ] has rejected all three and hast set the example for doing so.[7]

And he points out to his prisoner that the church controls and uses all three. This is the reason the Inquisitor was able to take Christ, the crowd's

[3]The theoretical framework for charisma is derived from Weber's general analysis of domination discussed in his book, *The Theory of Social and Economic Organization*, translator not named (New York: Oxford University Press, 1947).

[4]Dostoyevsky, *The Brothers Karamazov*, pp. 258-259.

[5]Ibid.

[6]Ibid., p. 260.

[7]Ibid., p. 264.

leader, without it rebelling, because to do so would involve an act of disobedience to authority. Authority is one of three forces represented by the Inquisitor as a spokesman of the church and state.

There are several meanings of "The Grand Inquisitor." Two of these meanings are offered below: these are the psychological and conflict explanations.

In psychological terms, James Downtown attempts an explanation of the story. Downton states:

> A charismatic relationship can develop when a leader exchanges affection, encouragement, and security for deference and affection. Here the charismatic leader is the 'comforter.' For example, Dostoyevsky's 'grand inquisitor' is a literary sketch of this type of charismatic leader. In such a relationship the leader reduces the distance between the follower's ego and ego-ideal by supporting his ego.[8]

What is implied here is that the Inquisitor's charisma is related to his office. His mission, and that of the church, is to spread the charismatic inspiration of Christ. Jesus Christ, who is identified as the "ego-ideal," established too high an ideal for many (individual "egos") to obtain. As a consequence the church eliminated the frustration experienced by those who seek salvation by changing the teaching, emphasizing dogma and conformity to the church as "keys" to salvation. In the process of easing this frustration, the church's officials, like the Inquisitor, are seen as "comforters."

As indicated by Downton's analysis, "The Grand Inquisitor" is a complex tale, which requires probing to arrive at the insights it has to offer to the concept of charisma and charismatic authority. Still another view is that the story is nothing more or less than a conflict between personal and institutional manifestations of charisma. The conflict perspective is the one preferred by the article's author.

Like the psychological dimension described by Downton, the conflict of opposing types of charisma is not on the surface: one has to look for it. The story is a monologue. As previously stated, only one of the two characters speaks, and he is the Inquisitor. However, once the reader accepts the prisoner and his jailer as representatives of two different kinds of charisma (*viz.*, personal and institutionalized charisma), support for the conflict thesis is easy to find. A conflict exists by virtue of Christ's presence back on earth. His return means the end of both the church's spiritual mission and secular power. The Inquiaitor informs Christ that the church is not prepared to give up either, mission or power. This being the case, it might be argued that the Inquisitor is not motivated alone by the desire to see the church continue its role as "comforter." He wishes also to protect the **status**

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[8]James Downton, Jr., *Rebel Leadership: Commitment and Charisma in the Revolutionary Process* (New York: The Free Press, 1973), p. 78.

Christ has returned. Simply put, the point is that a conflice exists because the two types of charisma cannot peacefully co-exist, since they claim the same following.

Having dealt with the presence of conflicting charismatic types in literature, the discussion now turns to a consideration of how a "staged personality" may be fostered on a people as a "charismatic" one. In Georgie Orwell's *1984*, a charismatic leader, Big Brother, is described. Big Brother adds a new dimension to charisma in literature.[9] Big Brother's so-called charismatic qualities seem to be wholly artificial. A theme of the novel is that a leader's charisma may be the end-product of a manipulation of the psyches of the nation-state so subtle as to render the people programmed: a programmed population is analogous to the "continued" protagonist in *1984*, who at the book's conclusion uncontrollably shrieks "long live Big Brother" even as he despises him.

However, before one describes the "charisma" of Big Brother and the implication this has for Weber's charisma theory, a brief discussion of the novel is in order. The novel *1984* is a work of science fiction, although some critics have said it is not science fiction because of the lack of fictional extrapolation into the immediate future. For them the political and economic picture of *1984* resembles ideologies and conditions as they are. Yet every one who has read it would say that the novel has given to the year 1984 a crucial significance it would not otherwise have. In commenting on this book, Orwell has stated:

> My novel *1984* is not intended as an attack on socialism, or on the British Labor Party, but as a show-up of the perversions to which a centralized economy is liable . . . I do not believe that the kind of society I describe necessarily will arrive, but I believe . . . that something resembling it could arrive.[10]

According to the information the reader is given in the novel, the oligarchic system prevailing at the time of the story began as a popular movement, but developed into an oligarchy as a result of ideology and interests. There is no mention made of the role charisma may have had in the movement and the revolution that overthrew the English parliamentary system. The reader is told that a popular movement, INSOGOC or the English Socialist party, turned into an elitist hierarchical structure after it came to power. Because the party turned into a rigid bureaucracy, the evolution which occured in government itself occured in other social institutions. The political theory is asserted that effective

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[9]George Orwell, *1984* (New York: Signet Classic, 1961).

[10]Quoted in Samuel Hynes, ed., *Twentieth Century Interpretation of 1984: A Collection of Critical Essays* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hill, Inc., 1971), p. 45.

power will always be in the hands of the few. This means that the leaders are an oligarchy, separated from the average citizen, and possess total political control. According to social policy in *1984*, one of the Party's most important functions is perpetuating a hierarchical society in which less than two per cent of the population belong to the Inner party, thirteen per cent of the Outer Party, eighty-five per cent to the Proletariat. The story deals with the relationship between Smith, the protagonist and Outer Party member, and O'Brien, a high ranking Inner Party member. O'Brien is more clever and more cultures than Smith, and he is committed to the pursuit of power. In O'Brien's words, "Power is not a means, it is an end."[11]

O'Brien and Smith's relationship resembles that between the Inquisitor and his prisoner in Dostoyevsky's "The Grand Inquisitor." In both stories the authority figure has imprisoned an individual whose "individualism" signifies threat to the **status quo**. The **status quo** itself is legitimated on the basis of charisma, and the powers-that-be value conformity above individual responsibility and action. In *1984* political conformism is objectified in the "conversion" of Smith in room 101 where he received electric shock treatment and in the philosophical and political conversations between Smith and O'Brien. In the end Smith is converted, that is, he loves Big Brother. The futility of human efforts is the theme of the "Grand Inquisitor" and *1984*. In Dostoyevsky's tale the futility of human efforts explains the need for the routinization of charisma and why a charismatically inspires dogma might oppose a new manifestation of charisma. Orwell's view of the authoritarian state which has a charismatic symbol suggests that individual efforts—Smith's attempt to revolt against Big Brother—appear to deny man's hope of meaningful political participation.

Big Brother, a fictional figure, symbolizes the society of Oceanic in *1984*. In appearance he is a man of about forty-five, with a heavy black mustache and ruggedly handsome features. His face is posted everywhere in Oceania: an enormous face a meter wide. His position is party leader. His image is shown at the conclusion of the daily Two Minute Hate, a propaganda movie which changes from day to day. The face of Big Brother, the symbol of authority and goodness, is juxtaposed with Emmanuel Goldstein, the enemy of the people. Orwell describes a typical follower's perception of and reaction to Big Brother's image during the showing of a Two Minute Hate:

> Big Brother seemed to tower up, an invincible, fearless protector, standing like a rock against the hordes of Asia . . .
>
> The face of Big Brother . . . full of power and mysterious claim . . . (his) words of encouragement . . . resorting confidence by the fact of being spoken.[12]

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[11]Orwell, *1984*, p. 217.

[12]Ibid., pp. 16-17.

In the novel, there is evidence of charismatic response, such as, a woman calling Big Brother, "My savior." The hero worship of Big Brother is evident by his image on coins, on stamps, on covers of books, on banners, on posters, and on the wrappings of cigarette packages—in short, everywhere.[13]

The above is evidence of charisma and the charismatic leadership of a state. Orwell writes that "Oceanic society rests ultimately on the belief that Big Brother is omnipotent and that the Party is infalliable. But since in reality Big Brother is not omnipotent and the Party is not infallible, there is need for . . . moment-to-moment flexibility in the treatment of facts."[14]

There can be little doubt that the Party, the ruling elite, carefully manipulates the image of a charismatic leader in order to elicit maximum support from the citizenry for its political goals. But, the questions remains, is Big Brother a charismatic figure? There can, of course, be no conclusive answer to this question, since Max Weber did not divide charisma into two categories, false and real. Yet, obviously, the reader cannot call Big Brother's charisma a case of false charisma, because there is no such concept. But still, the reader must deal with the fact that Big Brother is not a real person. Rather, he is an image.

This exchange between O'Brien and Smith makes the point that Big Brother does not exist, except as the projected image of the Party:

Smith: "Does Big Brother exist?"

O'Brien: "Of course he exists. The Party exists. Big Brother is the embodiment of the Party."

Smith: "Does he exist in the same way as I exist?"

O'Brien:"He exists."

Smith: "Will Big Brother ever die?"

O'Brien:"Of course not. How could he die?"[15]

Clearly, Big Brother can be no more than an image, since he can never die. That is, to the populace as a whole, Big Brother is a remote figure whose presence is experienced only in its symbolic-ideological dimension. Weber failed, this article contends, to foresee charisma-by-publicity. For Weber, charisma is defined as "an extraordinary quality of a person," and it is clear from his definition that he had in mind a real person, not a symbol for a group.[16]

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[13]Ibid., p. 26.

[14]Ibid., p. 175.

[15]Ibid., p. 214.

[16]Weber, *Theory of Social and Economic Organization*, p. 358.

The writer suggests the following resolution of the issue of Big Brother's charismatic status. Big Brother is not charismatic because he is not a real person. To recognize him as charismatic would be an explicit rejection of a Weberian charisma criteria, which is to say, charisma as understood by Weber is a property of a **real** person. Big Brother is a product of the "cult of the personality" phenomenon. The "personality cult" is leadership that seeks expressions of its legitimacy from the citizenry based on their belief in qualities such as charisma, which in reality the leader does not possess. In effect, the Party, in the novel *1984*, like modern totalitarian government, in Reinhart Bendix's words:

> . . . **simulate (s) publicly** all aspects of charismatic leadership—the manifestations of the leader's extraordinary gifts, the unconditional devotion of his disciples, and the awed veneration of his large following—saturating all channels of communication so that no one could escape the message.[17]

In literature as in real political life, personality cult is often hard to distinguish from charisma because of the phenomenon charisma-by-publicity. Given the proper public climate, a faith in charisma can be derived from the operation of the "great lie" and the "will to believe."[18] However, Bendix assures the reader that there are limitations to the psychological manipulation of a population, which creates a personality cult via charisma-by-publicity. He believes that the limitations are built-in, in the sense that people will invariably in time grow weary of having to listen to stories glorifying extraordinary feats of their leaders. In a democracy the people may turn off their television sets and radios. Yet, this may not in contemporary society (totalitarian and democratic) militate against the type of psychological manipulation Orwell describes in his novel, since news and information are, for a large part of any population, compatible with credibility. That is, contemporary man is almost totally dependent on the news media for his information about politics. His political attitude and behavior are shaped largely by the information which comes from his government. The news media is increasingly controlled and manipulated by government for political goals. One such goal is always the fostering of the notion that prevelant political leaderhip is bold, heroic, and irreplaceable.

This being the case, it can be argued that "Big Brotherism" is far more omnipresent and universal than has been read into Orwell's novel. Consider, could any leader, even in the United States, get along without some people to worship him? Mao recognized this phenomenon—the all

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[17]Quoted in Ilse Dronberger, *The Political Thought of Max Weber: In Quest of Statesmanship* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1977), p. 307.

[18]Ibid.

too human need to worship and to be worshipped.[19] A leader risks much by not having a cult, Mao explained, to one observer. He concluded that, "Probably Khrushchev fell because he had no cult of personality at all."[20]

Summary

The two novels, discussed in this paper, can enrich both a lay person's and a social scientist's understanding of charisma. Several insights are suggested by a reading and an analysis of these two examples of charisma in literature. First, there is the insight that charisma may be divided into personal and institutional charisma. The former refers to the concrete individual who is reputed to possess an extraordinary quality. This type of charisma is revolutionary, since it undermines the loyalties the masses have for the state and/or established institutions. Loyalty is removed from either a political regime or institutional structure (for instande, organized religion, bureaucracy, political party, pressure group) and given to an individual claiming charismatic legitimacy. However, charisma, in the sense of the aura of a hero, is unstable over time. The routinization of this charisma gives rise to institutionalized charisma. The charismatic inspiration of the personal charisma type is tied to political systems and institutional structures. Fron the "Grand Inquisitor" the reader gains an appreciation of the tension between "pure" (personal) charisma and charisma in its institutionalized form. A second insight is found in *1984*. The parallelism between charismatic and personality cult types and the notion of charisma-by-publicity are introduced in Orwell's novel.

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[19]Edgar Snow, *The Long Revolution* (New York: Atheneum Publisher, 1971), p. 170.

[20]Ibid., p. 205.

ABSTRACTS OF MASTER'S THESES AND SPECIALIST IN EDUCATION PROJECTS

A COMPARISON BETWEEN THE EFFECTS OF INTERCLASS GROUPING AND INTRACLASS GROUPING ON READING ACHIEVEMENT IN FIFTH THROUGH SEVENTH GRADE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILDREN

Grayce Sullivan Andersen (EdS, Middle Grades Education and Reading, August 1980)

The purpose of this study was to determine if the number of reading groups a teacher teaches in a single self-contained classroom is a factor in the decline of reading achievement as measured by national standarized tests.

Twenty-one female and twenty-five male subjects in grades five through seven whose entire school experience had been in a self-contained classroom with intra-grouping practices were selected. Their average monthly gain in vocabulary, comprehension and total reading was computed. The subjects' actual grade placement was disregarded as they were divided among grades five through seven (inter-class grouping) according to their reading achievement levels in such a way that no teacher was responsible for more than two instructional groups in reading. At the end of a five month period their average monthly gain/loss was again computed.

The data obtained from each subject was their achievement in total reading, vocabulary, reading comprehension, Intelligence Quotient, and their expected levels of achievement.

Statistical analysis of the data revealed there was a significant correlation between expected achievement and actual achievement in both inter-class and intra-class grouping; although, higher gains resulted from the inter-class grouping pattern.

When the subjects were analyzed as a group there was a positive significant difference in total reading, vocabulary, and comprehension but when the subjects were analyzed on the basis of sex alone a positive significant difference was shown only in the area of total reading.

This study concluded that reducing the number of reading groups in the classroom does make a significant difference in reading achievement; that

fewer instructional groups attain higher levels of achievement. The amount of time the teacher spends in instruction appeared to be the determining factor. This study further concluded that no significant sex differences existed among the learners at the upper elementary level as far as reading achievement is concerned; that both sexes profit equally from the inter-class grouping experience.

A STUDY OF THE SOCIAL AND INTELLECTUAL FORCES CONTRIBUTING TO THE PERSONALITY FORMATION OF MARTIN LUTHER KING, JR.

Ernst M. Bierkerot (MA, Psychology, August, 1980)

The thesis investigates the many different factors tha contributed to the personality development of the slain civil rights leader, martin Luther King, Jr. In Chapter I his family background, and early experiences of racial discrimination are investigated. Chapter II covers his time at Morehouse College where his studies introduced him to the teaching of Thoreau. After finishing his undergraduate work he went to Crozer Theological Seminary for his ministerial training. When at Crozer he studied such diverse topics as the Social Gospel, Karl Marx and Communism, Nietzche and Gandhi, the American pacifist A.J. Muste and the theologian Reinhold Niebuhr. Chapter IV deals with his doctoral studies at Boston University where especically the study of Personalist philosophy and theology contributed to the formation of his personal life philosophy. While in Boston King also studied the philosophy of Hegel, and did the research for his doctoral dissertation on Tillich and Wieman.

A STUDY OF PUPILS' MOBILITY IN RELATIONSHIP TO ACHIEVEMENT IN AN URBAN AREA

Frederick Raymond Blackwell (EdS, Counseling and Educational Psychology, December, 1981)

This study investigates the effects of school mobility and number of parental figures within a residence in Reading, English, Science and Mathematics as measured on the California Test of Mental Maturity and the Metropolitan Achievement Tests. (Data was secured from the Cummulative Folders of 345 eighth grade students.) An analysis of the data obtained through use of the Chi square formula was made and, using the .05 level of significance, no appreciable differences appeared between achievement of students who moved more often and students who remained more stable.

DIVORCE GROUP COUNSELING: A HANDBOOK FOR DIVORCE SUPPORT GROUPS

Edward L. Boye (MA, Psychology, June, 1981)

This booklet is a companion manual to the video tape "Divorce Group Counseling".

The booklet is for a person or persons who wish to have a basic understanding of the problems and needs of someone going through separation and divorce. It will also help in establishing a divorce support group in a church or community organization.

The tape is very useful in showing the need for such groups. It can also be used as a tool to begin discussion of the issues and problems of divorced persons. I would also suggest its use for couples groups, i.e., those considering marriage and those already married. It can be instrumental in opening couples up to issues they may be struggling with in their relationship.

The video tape can be obtained from the West Georgia Learning Resource Center on the Campus of West Georgia College in Carrollton, Georgia. Also, contact Reverend Edward L. Boye through the United Methodist Church of the North Georgia Conference, 159 Ralph McGill Boulevard, Atlanta, Georgia.

Statement of Purpose

"Single Again" is a divorce support group. It is established to help develop an extended family for sharing and mutual support in the crisis of separation and divorce. We are a group seeking the most creative means of growing and discovering as individuals and as a group. Reality is dealt with head on. Pain and loneliness is recognized as well as celebrative moments, but we do seek to avoid wallowing in those feelings and attitudes that hinder new life. We recognize that human beings are a community creature and that the sharing of a community formed as a result of broken relationships gives the strength and courage to grow and become.

A PROPOSED METHOD OF DETERMINING ACTUAL COST PER COURSE SECTION FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION IN COWETA COUNTY SCHOOLS

Richard C. Brooks and Paul S. Grim
(EdS, Educational Administration, August, 1980)

The problem was to formulate an accurate, effective procedure for computing the yearly cost of one educational unit or course. A ninth grade language arts class at Central High School in the Coweta County, Georgia System was used as a model.

A short review of related studies revealed a need for such a procedure since it had never been done in education but had proven effective in business and governmental sectors.

Information was gathered from cost records for the 1978-79 school year. After the limitations of the study were set, all costs used in the computations were arranged into five cost categories. Each cost was labeled as per student, per program, or per unit. The actual costs were then totaled in each cost category to yield a total per program cost and total per unit cost for each of the five categories. Each of the five per program totals was then added together for a cumulative program cost for the ninth grade language arts program at Central High for 1978-79. The same procedure yielded a cumulative unit cost for a ninth grade arts class. This final figure was the objective of the study.

The model herein illustrates the method for using cost data, the various operations necessary in arranging it, and the procedures for thus computing unit cost. The model can be considered an effective one for use in other systems for any program and unit cost estimation.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF MORNING AND AFTERNOON KINDERGARTEN CHILDREN'S PERFORMANCE ON PIAGETIAN CONSERVATION TASKS

Barbara Holmes Brown
(EdS, Early Childhood Education, August, 1981)

This study was conducted to find out whether there were significant differences on the performances on selected Piagetian tasks of conservation by kindergarten children who attended morning and afternoon kindergarten sessions at Hood Avenue School, Fayetteville, Georgia. This information will be made available for parents, administrators, and teachers who are involved in the scheduling of classes for kindergarten children in Fayette County, particularly Hood Avenue School, Fayetteville, Georgia. Forty-eight names were randomly selected from the six kindergarten classes; eight from each of the three morning classes and eight from each of the three afternoon classes. The interview technique was used for the five selected Piagetian conservation tasks which included: conservation of liquid, conservation of distance, and conservation of area-respresentational. The results were charted on frequency graphs and a total chart which showed mean, standard deviation, and the Fisher t test with level of significance set at .05. There was no significance difference on the performance on the selected Piagetian conservation tasks of the students interviewed representing the morning and afternoon kindergarten sessions. However, the students representing the afternoon session showed positive scores on all four of the selected Piagetian conservation tasks that were charted. The interview for conservation of substance was used as a relaxer and was not charted.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE NATIONAL TEACHER EXAMINATION IN EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION SCORES WITH THE EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION DEPARTMENT'S CRITERION-REFERENCED TEST SCORES FOR UNDERGRADUATES AT WEST GEORGIA COLLEGE FROM NOVEMBER, 1978 THROUGH MARCH, 1980

Carol Caldwell (EdS, Early Childhood Education, August, 1980)

The purpose of this study was to compare the scores of undergraduates at West Georgia College on two instruments, the National Teacher Examination in Early Childhood Education and the Early Childhood Education Department's criterion-referenced test in Early Childhood Education.

The hypothesis tested stated that there would be no correlation between the students' scores on the two examinations. The hypothesis was tested by employing the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Results showed that there was a significant correlation between the undergraduates' scores on the two instruments.

A recommendation was made that more comparative studies, using other variables, be conducted. It was suggested that a comparison of students' scores on the criterion-referenced instrument with their scores on the National Teacher Common Examinations would be worthwhile. It was further suggested that a comparison of students' scores on the criterion-referenced test with their grade point averages would also be valuable.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE PRESCRIBED ROLE AND THE ACTUAL ROLE OF THE ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL IN COBB COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOLS MARIETTA, GEORGIA

Grace Ollis Calhoun

(EdS, Educational Administration, August, 1980)

Is the actual role of elementary principals in Cobb County Schools in Marietta, Georgia congruent with the school system's prescribed roles? To determine this, a 10-item questionnaire of prescribed areas of responsibility, taken from the school systems position specifications

manual, was distributed to the Cobb County School's forty-five elementary principals during the 1979-80 school year. The principals were asked to rank order from one to ten with one being the highest, each of the ten areas of responsibility according to importance within the role of the elementary principal. Then principals were also asked to rank the ten areas from one to ten with one representing the most time spent in the actual role. The questionnaire return rate was 78 percent. The usable returns represented 62 percent of the Cobb County Elementary principals. The study revealed that the roles were congruent or nearly congruent in most areas except in the area of improvement of instruction, the area of communication with students, teachers, central office, and parents, and the area of knowledge of elementary education. The review of the literature revealed that most elementary principals across the nation also felt that the most important role area for the elementary principal was that of instructional leader. The study prompted the recommendation of additional administrative and clerical assistance for the elementary principals of Cobb County Schools, the addition of elementary counselors, and staff development programs for elementary principals in identified areas.

NORTHWEST GEORGIA CESA NEEDS ASSESSMENT: AN INDICATOR FOR IMPROVED SERVICES AS PERCEIVED BY TEACHERS

Giles M. Chapman, Jr.

(EdS, Educational Administration, August, 1980)

The purpose of this study was to determine the service and program areas that the Northwest Georgia Cooperative Educational Service Agency (CESA) needed to improve.

The study reports on 250 questionnaires submitted to 250 randomly selected, certificated personnel from systems served by CESA in a ten county, 14 school system area.

Findings revealed that CESA should provide improved services in the areas of special education, general information about CESA, language arts, and community relations.

The study concludes with recommendations for each area and a time line to initiate or accomplish the recommendations needed to improve services.

PSI: A MODEL FOR PSYCHOTHERAPY

Barbara Ryan Church (MA, Psychology, March, 1981)

Psi phenomena include telepathy, clairvoyance, precognition, and a related category, PK. A study of attitudes in the scientific community, especially the attitudes of behavioral scientists, toward these phenomena was conducted. The current status of psi research was examined. A review of the literature revealed a wide discrepancy in attitudes toward psi. It was discovered that parapsychologists, as a group, evidence the strongest belief in the existence of psi, and psychologists, as a group, the least belief in the existence of psi. Psi research exists in an atmosphere of controversy in the scientific community. Major criticisms of psi research methodology are examined. In an effort to draw similarities with hard science and thus gain acceptance for the existence of psi, many proponents of the paranormal turn to physics to find theories which appear to them to share common rules and conditions. Theoretical aspects of psi in relation to quantum mechanics, including Bohr's Principle of Complementarity and Heisenberg's Uncertainty Principle are surveyed. In order to study the effect of the therapist's attitude toward psi on the willingness and/or ability of the client to disclose psi experience, an experiment studied the effects of accepting and open experimenter attitudes versus a rejecting experimenter attitude toward psi phenomena on the number of paranormal experiences subjects report. Thirty undergraduate psychology students were randomly assigned to either a positive experimenter attitude group, a negative experimenter attitude group, or an open (neutral) control condition. All subjects were first asked to complete a standard Rorschach test, revealing aspects of their personality to the investigator. Results of these tests were not evaluated. The Rorschach was used to simulate therapy conditions. Following completion of the Rorschach, the positive attitude group was instructed to complete a questionnaire reporting frequency of psi experience after hearing taped instructions demonstrating an accepting attitude toward paranormal experience. The negative attitude group was asked to complete this questionnaire after hearing taped instructions demonstrating a closed, rejecting attitude toward psi. The control group did not recieve taped instructions. This group was not exposed to positive or negative attitudes, creating a neutral, open environment. Group means for reported psi experience were calculated, and data analyzed using a **t** test. The hypothesis that subjects in the rejecting climate would report significantly fewer psi experiences than subjects in an open climate was supported, $t(18) = 2.16$, $p < .05$. In order to examine psi phenomena in a theoretical framework, LeShan's (1969, 1976) theory of alternate individual realities is presented, examining methods of obtaining information through the senses (the S-IR), and without sensory data, in the clairvoyant mode (the C-IR). Implications for psychotherapy are discussed, focusing on Jourard's (1971) emphasis on the importance of self-disclosure to mental health.

A STUDY TO DETERMINE THE EXTENT OF FUNDS RAISED TO SUPPLEMENT MAINTENANCE AND OPERATION FUNDS WITHIN THE CATOOSA COUNTY SCHOOLS

Richard E. Clark

EdS, Educational Administration, March, 1981)

The experience while serving as a building principal dictated the necessity of raising monies to supplement state and county maintenance and operation funds created a desire on the part of the writer to determine the extent of such activities within the twelve schools comprising the Catoosa County System.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the fund raising activities of each of the schools within the Catoosa County System to determine the extent of such activities, the types of fund raising activities, the amounts raised and the purpose for which the funds were expended.

A review of current literature and research was conducted to determine the legal status of fund raising activities and practices in other geographic areas.

The conclusions reached were that a substantial sum of money was being raised at each school site to supplement the expense of maintenance and operation operations and that the principals were in favor of abolishing all fund raising activities provided the Board would increase the millage rate to supply the schools with the funds that are currently raised by each school. It was found that an additional levy of one and one-eighth mills (1.125) would make this possible.

Although this study was limited to one relatively small school system and may not be relevant for other systems, a more thorough study should be conducted on a regional or state level to determine whether this problem is unique to Catoosa County or a concern of principals over a wider geographic area.

THE USE OF THE TYPEWRITER TO FACILITATE SPELLING SKILLS IN LEARNING DISABLED CHILDREN

Susan Baker Coker (EdS, Special Education, August, 1981)

The purpose of this study was to determine if a significant difference existed between handwritten and typewritten spelling performance in learning disabled children.

students at Oak Grove Elementary School. During the initial five weeks of the study, students used handwriting to complete spelling exercises and weekly spelling tests from the *Spell Correctly* textbook. Typewriting was used as the means of completing spelling exercises and tests during the subsequent five week period.

The t-test for related measures was used to statistically analyze differences between spelling test scores resulting from handwritten efforts and those resulting from the typewritten method. Analysis of data indicated no significant difference in the spelling performance of the learning disabled children whether responses were handwritten or typewritten.

LUCID DREAMS: VARIETIES, EVOLUTIONAL ORIGINS AND TECHNIQUES OF INDUCTION

Kenneth W. Danis (MA, Psychology, March, 1981)

The experience of lucid dreaming (realizing one is dreaming while within the dream) is examined. A review of the literature, an exploration of the varieties of lucid dreams, speculations as to possible evolutionary origins of lucid dreams, and techniques of lucid dream induction are explored.

RICHARD II: AN ATTEMPT TO ESTABLISH ABSOLUTE MONARCHY IN MEDIEVAL ENGLAND

Jacquelyn Dodson Davis
(MA, History, December, 1981)

The experiences of Richard II's early years and the weakened condition of the monarchy left to him by his grandfather, Edward III, and his own minority generated in him a deep concern. His introduction to affairs of state came dramatically with the Peasants Revolt of 1381. Richard, at fourteen, witnessed the paralysis of a government without authorized leadership.

Richard's own complex personality has encouraged much psychological speculation. His father and grandfather before him were great military heros. This fact was pointed out to him time and again. They had maintained magnificent courts which could have overawed a sensitive, imaginative child. His half-brothers, the Hollands, were also men of action, glorified by chroniclers of chivalry. The fundamental obligation of the medieval king was to lead his army on the field of battle. Richard liked none of these traditional trappings of Knighthood. His tasts were more

aesthetic than athletic. There is no proof that he ever failed to carry out his traditional role to the best of his ability.

Historians have developed from this the picture of a young man with an acute inferiority complex which was appeased only by elaborate exhibitions of his power and in extravagant declarations of the "King's Majesty." These tendacies were accented by the humiliation he was forced to endure at the hands of his counselors. The results of these views is a king neurotically fascinated by absolutism and all it symbolized.

This is an interesting analysis and presents a comprehensive explanation for everything Richard said or did. It appears, however, to be a simplification of the truth. Shakespeare's characterization in his play, *Richard II*, has done nothing to dispel this view.

There is still no satisfactory history of the reign of Richard II. Most secondary works are colored by the traditional view of Richard as 'madman' or by the drama of William Shakespeare. This thesis attempts a brief review of the abundant primary sources available from the late fourteenth century. From these a rational policy of royal absolutism can be developed.

AN ANALYTICAL SURVEY OF PROFESSIONAL AND GENERAL INTEREST READING HABITS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS

Louise C. Davis (EdS, Middle Grades Education and Reading, August, 1981)

This study proposed to ascertain whether reading habits related to certain general interest reading material and to 20 specific professional publications were related to the position, sex, age, and certification level of respondents. The purpose was to discover and tabulate the degree to which these materials were utilized. Previous studies had indicated little reading by teachers and principals, particularly of professional materials. To see if this generalization concerning reading habits held true, the differences among the specific publications and each of the four independent variables, position, sex, age, and certification level were investigated.

On the basis of information gathered from respondents in selected areas of Georgia, the posited null hypotheses was rejected. The first hypothesis was rejected as there was a significant difference in the reading practices reported by elementary school teachers and the reading practices reported

by elementary school principals. The second hypothesis was rejected as there was a significant difference in the reading practices reported by males and the reading practices reported by females. The third hypothesis was rejected as there was significant difference in reading practices reported among the different age groupings. The fourth hypothesis was rejected as there was a significant difference in reading practices reported among the different certification levels.

From the research conducted, it appears that the position of an educator is the major influence in the choice of reading materials followed by certification level, age, and sex.

A STUDY OF THE BASAL READING APPROACH VERSUS AN ECLECTIC APPROACH ON THE READING ACHIEVEMENT OF FOURTH GRADE STUDENTS AT ARBOR STATION ELEMENTARY SCHOOL IN DOUGLAS COUNTY

Kathryn M. Echols (EdS, Middle Grades Education and Reading, August, 1981)

Since reading is such a fundamental component of the school curriculum, it has been the focus of many studies, projects, and fads. Teachers always want to determine the best methods for teaching the skills for all subject areas, but this is especially true in the area of reading due to its impact on all subject areas.

The number of students who have problems with reading has always been a source of frustration for teachers. There are many students who graduate from high school with only minimal reading abilities. It is for this reason that the search for the best method of teaching reading continues.

The purpose of this study was to determine if an electic approach of teaching reading would be as effective, or perhaps more effective, than the basal reading approach.

The subjects for this study were some fourth grade students at Arbor Station Elementary School in Douglas County. The subjects were members of one of the fourth grade classes and, according to their school records, were considered to be the high achievers. Therefore, it was assumed to be a rather homogenous group with regard to reading abilities. The class was divided into two groups of sixteen.

adopted basal reading series, with the teacher's manual as a guide for instruction. The experimental group received instruction through a variety of methods and materials, an eclectic approach. The study lasted three months.

A pretest and posttest was given to acquire the data for a comparison of gains. The tests were divided into two sections, vocabulary and comprehension. The scores from each section and the total scores were compared, with the t-test as the instrument for comparison.

The gain from the pretest to the posttest in the area of vocabulary was significant at the .05 level in favor of the experimental group. However, the gain in the area of comprehension or on the total test was not significant enough to support the hypothesis.

It is recommended that this study be replicated with larger groups and also a different grade levels.

A LOOK AT THE EDUCATIONAL, EXPERIENCE AND COACHING BACKGROUNDS OF GEORGIA HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Jim Forester (EdS, Educational Administration, June, 1981)

The purpose of this study was to find commonality or lack of commonality in the educational, experience and coaching backgrounds of Georgia high school principals. The survey was sent to all Georgia high school principals with a 95% rate of response.

Bachelor of Science, Master of Education and Educational Specialist were the dominant degrees held by these principals. A negative correlation was found between coaching at a school and becoming a principal there. Slightly over 50% of the principals had coached at all. Georgia high school principals are a mobile group with almost all having worked in more than one school system. Most did not decide to become principals until they entered teaching. Their average age at their first high school principalship was 35.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF GRADE POINT AVERAGES, NATIONAL TEACHER EXAMINATIONS SCORES, GEORGIA TEACHER CERTIFICATION TEST SCORE AND EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION DEPARTMENT'S CRITERION—REFERENCED TEST SCORES FOR UNDERGRADUATES AT WEST GEORGIA COLLEGE FROM MARCH, 1978 THROUGH SUMMER, 1980

Danelle Hughes Freeman (EdS, Early Childhood Education, June, 1981)

The purpose of this study was to compare the grade point averages and the scores of undergraduates at West Georgia College on four instruments; the National Teacher Common Examination, the National Teacher Examination in Early Childhood Education, the Georgia Criterion-Referenced Test for Teacher Certification and the Early Childhood Education Department's criterion-referenced test in Early Childhood Education.

The hypothesis tested stated that there would be no correlation between the students' grade point averages and their scores on the four examinations. The hypothesis was tested by employing a five variable coefficient analysis statistical formula to show correlations. Results showed that there was a significant correlation between the undergraduates' grade point average and their scores on the four instruments.

A recomendation was made that more comparative studies, using other variables, be conducted. It was suggested that a comparison of students' grade point averages and their scores on the National Teacher Examinations, the Georgia Criterion-Referenced Test for Teacher Certification, the Early Childhood Education Department's criterion-referenced test in Early Childhood Education and the Georgia Teacher Performance Assessment Instruments would be worthwhile.

THE USE OF MYTH IN SIX FAULKNER NOVELS

Marion L. Foreman (MA, English, March, 1981)

William Faulkner often illuminated basic human truths in his work through the use of myths. This thesis presents six Faulkner novels, written at various points in his long career, and attempts to delineate some of the myths found in each one. The myths are divided into three categories—

myth and nature, myth and heroic adventure, and myth and the American adventure.

In *The Hamlet*, the Demeter-Persephone myth provides the basis for a modern story of greed and despair in which an evil villain overcomes the inhabitants of a rural area. In *Sanctuary*, an ancient fertility rite is the focal point for a contemporary gangster story. The elements of the rite, however, have been twisted by Faulkner in order to illustrate the way in which modern life has become perverted.

The heroic adventure myth is used as a pattern in *Go Down, Moses*, but Faulkner changes the ending of his tale from that of the normal mythic adventure. The modern hero refuses to accept his task in the world and relinquishes his duty in order to obtain peace of mind and tranquility for himself. The heroic myth pattern is used again in *The Reivers* to trace a young boy's journey from childhood to adulthood even though the youngster's adventures are far different from those of Aeneas and Jason in the ancient myths.

Modern myths reflecting the peculiar essence of the American adventure are explored in *Absalom, Absalom!* and *The Sound and the Fury*. In these novels, Faulkner follows the puritan and cavalier philosophies of the new world through many of his characters, and he also depicts the new American hero, who worships science and wealth while demonstrating little love for his fellow man.

Faulkner uses myth in his stories in order to remind us that we are a part of the total mass of humanity which has existed for eons, and he invites is to note how much modern man is changing from his ancestors and to examine these changes to decide whether or not our new ideals are sufficient replacements for the old.

A MORE EFFECTIVE PROGRAM OF CUSTODIAL SERVICES FOR ROSWELL HIGH SCHOOL

Larry W. Garmon (EdS, Educational Administration, August, 1980)

The purpose of this study was to find ways to improve the overall cleanliness of the Roswell High School building, to help the custodians feel better about their jobs and themselves, and to raise the salaries of the custodial workers. It was hoped that the accomplishment of these goals would also lead to a decrease in absenteeism and employee turnover among custodial personnel. A lesser element of the study was a contrast between the use of traditional, full-time custodial employees and evening only, contract custodial labor. The study was conducted by the use of the following methods: a personal and private interview with the 10 custodians at Roswell High School, an analysis of the results of a questionnaire sent to

42 high school custodial workers in north Fulton County, and an interview with the Supervisor of Custodial Services in north Fulton County. A summary of the results showed a general displeasure with salaries among workers, poor employee morale, an excessive number of days absent, especially among the Roswell workers, few employees with more than one to two years' service, few employees who would recommend the job to a friend, and few who planned to work until retirement. On the positive side, workers generally felt good about their benefits and about themselves. Their jobs did not appear to have a negative effect on their self-esteem as had been hypothesized. While contract labor has generally been found to be more economical, the sources of information contacted by this writer did not find it to be satisfactory in terms of the overall school program. Recommendations were made to increase custodial salaries by cutting personnel back to the State allocation. Only three workers would be used on the day shift—a male worker, a female worker, and a grounds man. Most of the cleaning would be done after school hours. Many of the advantages of contracting would be present without most of the disadvantages. Workers would also be paid for one-half their unused sick and personal days at the end of the year to discourage absenteeism. A recommendation for an extensive training program is also suggested.

THE DEPRESSION IN CARROLL COUNTY: AN ORAL HISTORY COLLECTION

Rita Pruitt Gentry (EdS, Secondary Education, June, 1981)

This study was undertaken to collect accurate historical data of the Depression in Carroll County, Georgia. It could also be used as a guide for the procedure of collecting oral history and should be of value to other teachers and students.

The objectives were achieved by conducting an oral history project as an example of the methodology and procedures used in such projects. Research was limited to thirteen taped interviews of persons who lived in Carroll County, Georgia, during the Depression. Two of the interviews were transcribed, and the remaining eleven tapes were summarized.

The literature examined stated the advantages and faults of oral history. Also, the reviewed literature gave the procedures and methods of collecting and producing an oral history project.

This study supports the contention that oral history is a valuable tool for collecting accurate historical data and will serve as a guide for other students and teachers.

THE "EDDY" WARS OF THE GREAT PACIFIC WAR 1941-1945

Sylvia Swords Graham
(EdS, Secondary Education, March, 1981)

This paper is a study of the nationalistic armies of Southeast Asia during the Second World War. Emphasis has been placed on the three most significant Japanese-sponsored nationalistic armies and on the Hukbalahap army of the Philippines. The "eddy" wars were the small conflagrations in which these armies were engaged throughout the duration of the larger conflict of the Pacific War. Without a doubt, the Italian, Burmese and Indonesian National Armies hastened the process of independence for their individual countries. The Indonesians were the only group forced into actual combat with the returning colonial powers. The Hukbalahap were instrumental in bringing about many desperately needed reforms for the peasants in the Phillipines.

The knowledge of these nationalistic armies has been mostly confied to the Pacific Area. It has become vital in today's world that the future leaders of the United States comprehend the hopes and dreams of these new nations that have been born since 1945. This study has endeavored to present the salient points a teacher, regardless of background, would need to prepare a teaching unit on the nationalistic armies. Suggestions on points to be stressed have been included.

The countries of the West and the countries of Southeast Asia have need of each other. Therefore, the United States must make every effort to understand the complex problems, cultures, peoples and tensions that lie immediately under the surface of Southeast Asia. This paper has attempted to make a small step on that road to full understanding.

DEVELOPMENT OF A POSITIVE SELF-CONCEPT FOR TMR ADOLESCENTS THROUGH DISTANCE RUNNING

Phillip L. Gunter (EdS, Special Education, August, 1981)

This study was undertaken to determine if the development of a positive self-concept in trainable mentally retarded adolescents could be heightened by participation in a jogging program.

Ten students were selected from a class of twenty intermediate TMR's at the Whitfield County Special Education Center in Varnell, Georgia. The only criterion for selection was a signed physical indicating that the student's medical condition was such that jogging would be beneficial. The students were randomly divided into two groups, one treatment and one control. Both groups were administered a Harvard Step Test and Primary Self-Concept Inventory.

The treatment group completed a structured ten-week running program culminating in competition in races of 4.5, 5, and 6.2 miles. The control group continued in their regularly scheduled activities.

The data presented were a tabulation and comparison of the physical fitness gain scores and the self-concept gain scores.

The null hypothesis for increased self-concept of the treatment group was accepted at the .05 level of confidence. Even though there was a substantial increase in self-concept of the treatment group, it was not statistically significant at this level.

The second null hypothesis was also accepted at the .05 level of confidence. There was no statistically significant gain of the treatment group in one self-concept domain over another. These domains were, personal-self, social-self, and intellectual self.

Recommendations for further study were included because larger groups over a longer period of time may have produced different results.

EFFECTS OF RETENTION ON ACHIEVEMENT OF STUDENTS AT BARNESVILLE PRIMARY SCHOOL

Amy Claire Hall (EdS, Middle Grades Education and Reading, August, 1981)

This study was designed to determine if there was a significant gain in reading and mathematic scores during the retained year and to compare reading and mathematic gain scores between a retained group and a promoted group.

Students used in this study were fifty-two students in grades one through four. A group of twenty-six retained students composed of experimental group. The control group was composed of twenty-six promoted students. The subjects of both groups were similar in age, grade in school, and reading scores on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills.

The pretest and posttest used for this study was the Iowa Test of Basic Skills. The pretest was administered in April, 1979, and the posttest was given April, 1980.

The t test was used to analyze the data and the null hypotheses were rejected at the .05 level of significance with the exception of hypothesis 4 which was not rejected.

Results from the analyses showed that the experimental group showed a significant gain in reading and mathematics score during the retained year. The results favored the control group in reading, but there was no significant difference in gain scores in mathematics. These statistics imply that further research should be conducted with both the experimental and control groups to determine if the subjects' achievements gain was valid.

A COMPARISON OF THE TRADITIONAL APPROACH VERSUS AN INCIDENTAL APPROACH IN TEACHING SPELLING AT THE SEVENTH-GRADE LEVEL

Joe Ann A. Hanson (EdS, Secondary Education, August, 1980)

This study was designed to determine if an incidental approach to the teaching of spelling had an equally positive effect on spelling achievement as did the traditional approach.

Subjects used in this study were four sections of seventh-grade students at Evans Junior High School, Newnan, Georgia. Two sections were considered basic in terms of ability and achievement, and two sections were considered advanced in terms of ability and achievement. During the twelve-week period between September 10, 1979 and December 12, 1979, the control groups of both basic and advanced students were taught spelling using the traditional approach. The experimental groups of both basic and advanced students were taught spelling incidentally as needed in writing. Subjects completing the experiment numbered 17 in the basic control group, 26 in the advanced control group, 22 in the basic experimental group, and 28 in the advanced experimental group giving a total of 93 participants completing the experiment.

A pretest was designed and administered by the investigator. A posttest was designed and administered by the investigator at the end of the study. A delayed posttest was designed and administered by the investigator four weeks after the completion of the study.

Analysis of covariance was used to analyze the data. The null hypotheses were tested using the .05 level of significance. Results indicated no significant difference in achievement on the posttest nor on the delayed posttest. This would indicate that spelling instruction using the traditional approach had no more significant effect on spelling achievement than did the incidental method of teaching spelling.

It is recommended that further studies be made in this area.

SELF-CONCEPTS OF LEARNING DISABLED AND REGULAR CLASS ADOLESCENTS

Diane Hightower (EdS, Special Education, August, 1981)

The purpose of this study was to determine if a significant difference in self-concept existed between learning disabled and regular class adolescents.

The subjects were learning disabled and regular class students at Cass High School. A total of 47 students were involved in the study. Twenty-two learning disabled and 25 randomly selected regular class students took

part. Self-concept was measured using the Piers-Harris Childeren's Self-Concept Scale.

Analysis of data obtained showed a significant difference in self-concept between learning disabled and regular class students.

A STUDY COMPARING THE EFFECTS OF TRADITIONAL APPROACH VERSUS APPROACH IN TEACHING MULTIPLICATION AT THE THIRD GRADE LEVEL AT KENNESAW ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, KENNESAW, GEORGIA

Linda D. Hull (EdS, Middle Grades Education and Reading, December, 1981)

In recent years educators have become increasingly aware of the importance of attitude on the part of the learner. Many times children learn or fail to learn, because of their attitude toward a subject. This has been particularly true of mathematics because mathematics has always been an abstract subject that elementary age children have difficulty understanding. Research has been done in mathematics in an effort to make the abstractness of mathematics more concrete for young learners. Concrete manipulatives have become an increasingly valued tool in primary age mathematics programs.

This study was done with the purpose of determining the concrete manipulatives and a manipulative activity approach would make a significant positive difference in achievement in multiplication facts in comparison with a traditional approach. Two groups of children were chosen, at random, to participate in the study. One group experienced a manipulative activity approach to the teaching of multiplication, and one group experienced a traditional approach to the teaching of multiplication. Achievement was determined by compating raw scores achieved on a multiplication facts test designed by Cleveland Myers. This same test was used for a pretest, posttest and a delayed posttest. The pretest was administered before formal instruction began. The posttest was administered after six weeks of formal instruction, and the delayed posttest was administered three weeks after formal instruction ceased. A statistically significant difference was determined to be the .05 level. An analysis of variance treatment showed the differences in achievement were not significantly positive. The statistical difference between the groups on the posttest was .950. The statistical difference between the groups on the delayed posttest was .646.

better using a manipulative activity approach, it did not prove that manipulatives had any adverse effect on the students. The students achieved regardless of the method employed. Therefore, manipulatives do have a place in the curriculum. They should be employed for use with any particular child that is operating on a concrete operational level to help him see mathematics in a more concrete and less abstract way.

A STUDY OF THE EFFECT OF THE LECTURE METHOD VERSUS THE CONTRACT METHOD ON ATTITUDE TOWARD AND ACHIEVEMENT IN UNITED STATES HISTORY

Belva Jean Ingle (EdS, Secondary Education, December, 1981)

This study sought to determine if two selected methods of instruction (the lecture method and the contract method) made any significant difference in attitude toward and achievement in United States history of two classes of eleventh grade history students who attended Trion High School in Trion, Georgia.

The two classes were given an attitude and achievement pretest. For a measure of attitude toward history, Remmers' *A Scale to Measure Attitude Toward Any School Subject* was administered at the beginning of the study. It was followed by Harper & Row's *A People and A Nation* Test Booklet A which was used to measure achievement in United States history. An experimental period of five weeks followed.

The control group was taught by the traditional lecture-oriented approach. A contract was designed and given to students in the experimental group. Each student in the experimental group was permitted to select options resulting in earning points for the grade of his choice.

At the conclusion of the experimental period Remmer's *Any School Subject Survey* and the Harper and Row test were given as a posttest. Statistical analysis of the data revealed that there was no significant difference between the two groups in relation to attitude and/or achievement gain at the .05 level of significance.

A STUDY TO DETERMINE THE CORRELATION BETWEEN THE SCHOOL READINESS SURVEY AND THE METROPOLITAN READINESS TEST SCORES AND THE READING ACHIEVEMENT SCORES OF GIFTED KINDERGARTEN CHILDREN

M. W. Irwin (EdS, Early Childhood Education, December, 1981)

The purpose of this study was to investigate and determine the correlation between the School Readiness Survey, the Metropolitan Readiness Test Scores and IQ scores of gifted kindergarten children and their reading achievement scores on the Addison-Wesley End-of-Level Test.

The study involved twenty identified gifted kindergarten children from the Euharlee Early Childhood Center in the Polk School District. The children received eight months of formal reading instruction using the Addison-Wesley *Meet The Superkids*. The School Readiness Survey, the Slosson Intelligence Test, the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test and the Metropolitan Readiness Test were all administered before formal reading instruction began. At the end of the school year, the Addison-Wesley End-of-Level Test was administered.

An analysis was made of these scores to determine if there were any significant correlation between readiness scores and reading achievement of the gifted kindergarten children and the IQ scores and the reading achievement of the gifted children. A correlation technique using the .05 level of significance was used to determine the relationship of the variables.

A STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF THE EARLY CHILDHOOD SPECIALIST IN EDUCATION PROGRAM AT WEST GEORGIA COLLEGE ON GRADUATES AFTER RE-ENTERING THE TEACHING PROFESSION

Dianne F. Isaacs (EdS, Early Childhood Education, December, 1981)

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the effects of the Early childhood Specialist in Education program at West Georgia College on fourteen graduates after they re-entered the teaching profession.

The hypothesis stated in Chapter I was supported by the results shown in Tables I and II. There were positive evaluations reflected in the questionnaire responses concerning the effect of the Early Childhood

Specialist in Education program at West Georgia College on graduates after re-entering the teaching profession. These responses were validated by the responses of graduates' supervisors. Comparative studies of the raw scores and the percentages both supported the hypothesis. Comparative studies of the means also indicated positive support of the hypothesis.

A STUDY TO DETERMINE THE ATTITUDES OF SELECTED CARROLL COUNTY ELEMENTARY TEACHERS ABOUT HANDWRITING IN THE CLASSROOM AS PREPARATION FOR THE ADULT LEVEL

Nancy Jordan (EdS, Elementary Education, March, 1981)

Today's computerized society demands that we PLEASE PRINT. The purpose of this study was to determine if the elementary teachers in Carroll County favored cursive over manuscript writing in the classroom and as the preferred method of written communication at the adult level.

A questionnaire was developed to determine the attitudes of selected teachers about cursive and manuscript writing, and to obtain current information about classroom handwriting practices. Seventy-eight questionnaires were tabulated. The results showed that teachers preferred the cursive handwriting style in the elementary classroom, and the majority also believed cursive more important than manuscript at the adult level.

A recommendation was made that teachers be amde aware of the importance of manuscript writing at the adult level.

THE *IN VITRO* FORMATION OF THE CHICK NEUROMUSCULAR JUNCTION IN A CHEMICALLY DEFINED SERUM-FREE CULTURE MEDIUM

James Richard Kerr (MS, Biology, August, 1980)

Primary cultures of 5 day chick embryo spinal cord and 11 day chick embryo skeletal muscle were cultured in a newly developed chemically defined serum-free medium. The optimal serum-free medium consisted of Dulbecco's Modified, Eagle/Ham's F-12, insulin, putrescine, and transferrin. The spinal cord cells grew and were maintained for 4-6 weeks. Interneuronal synapses frequently formed. The muscle cells differentiated, fused, and formed contractile "myo-strands" after approximately 10-12 hours in culture and remained viable to the 4th day. Neuromuscular junction formation was studied by overlaying the monolayer muscle cultures with a dissociated neuronal cell suspension. Observations using

light and scanning electron microscopy illustrate neuromuscular junctions forming soon after nerve-muscle interaction. The present *in vitro* study shows initial junctional motoneuron terminals in contact with muscle. All cultures were grown in a total serum-free environment without exposure to serum. Early events of the chick neuromuscular junction were also observed.

STRESS, ILLNESS AND WELL-BEING

Ronald O. Kirk (MA, Psychology, August, 1980)

This thesis proceeds in four distinct phases. In the first section we elucidate Hans Selye's definition of stress. We explore Selye's general adaptation syndrome and corroborate his findings with the fight or flight response brought to light by W. B. Cannon. We delineate the effects of cortisol and the adrenalines upon the physiological mechanisms of the human body. In conclusion we look at signs and symptons of excessive stress and describe endogenous stress.

In the second section of this thesis we explore the relationship between stress and numerous disease syndromes. We delineate the manners in which stress may predispose individuals to hypertension, arteriosclerosis, heart disease, cancer, arthritis. After exploring ways in which stress disrupts immune mechanisms, we view Rahe's documentation of the relationship between stressful events and illness.

In the third section of this thesis, we explore ways in which meditation, autosuggestion, visualization, placebo and positive motivation are being used to disrupt stress mechanisms. We survey Benson's westernized version of Transcendental Meditation and delineate central themes in meditative processes from the East and West. We examine O. Carl Simonton's program for rehabilitation of terminally-ill cancer patients, concentrating on his visualization techniques. In conclusion we review the dramatic recovery of Norman Cousins from progressive paralysis through laughter therapy.

In the final section of this thesis, we explore Simonton's mind/body model of recovery. We elucidate data relative to the means by which brainstem nuclei may be involved in controlling autonomic functions during meditation. We delve into the relationship between meditation, suggestion, placebo and the endorphin-mediated inhibition of painful stimuli. We bring to light the correlation between the effects of endogenous opiates and the observed physiological effects of meditation. In conclusion, we offer a model for describing the physiological effects of placebo in recovery from illness.

A STUDY OF ACHIEVEMENT AND BEHAVIOR OF STUDENTS WHO ARE ON A DIET CONTAINING SUGAR, BLEACHED FLOUR, AND FOOD ADDITIVES AS COMPARED TO STUDENTS WHO ARE ON A DIET FREE FROM SUGAR, BLEACHED FLOUR, AND FOOD ADDITIVES

Arefeh Langkilde (EdS, Middle Grades Education and Reading, August, 1981)

This study was conducted to compare the achievement and the behavior of students who were on a diet containing sugar, bleached flour, and food additives to that of students who were on a diet free from sugar, bleached flour, and food additives.

The subjects of this study were 29 students, grade two, four, and five, from the schools in the Atlanta metropolitan area. The subjects were divided into two groups, the experimental group and the control group, on the basis of their answers to the diet questionnaire. The experimental group had a diet free from sugar, bleached flour, and food additives. The control group had a diet containing sugar, bleached flour, and food additives. The subjects on the experimental group were on their special diet for at least six months before the administration of tests.

The Wide Range Achievement Test was administered to both groups to determine their achievement level. All the subjects in both groups were on rated on the Burk's Behavior Rating Scales by their classroom teacher yp ptovide a basis for the comparison of their behavior. The data obtained from this study was treated by the analysis of variance procedure.

Results indicated that there was a significant difference, in the areas of mathematics and reading, in favor of the experimental group. The comparison of the spelling achievement scores showed a mean difference of 4.82 in favor of the experimental group, but this difference was not statiscally significant. The comparison of the behavior scores indicated no significant difference between the experimental and the control group.

A COMPARISON OF A PRINT AND NON-PRINT APPROACH FOR TEACHING SOCIAL STUDIES

Ann Laster (EdS, Middle Grades Education and Reading, August, 1981)

The purpose of this study was to determine if emphasis given the print or non-print approach would made a significant difference in teaching social studies. The unit on westward expansion was taught to the control and experimental groups. The control group used the textbook, workbook, and other print materials. The experimental group used media and concrete manipulatives.

The subjects were from fifth year students at Argyle Elementary School in Cobb County, Georgia. There were 59 subjects who completed the study.

The students were given 75 items on teacher made pretest and posttest. The statistical analysis used was the Analysis of Covariance. The pretest was the covariate and the posttest was the dependent variable. The level of significance was established as .05.

This study provided for the support or rejection of the following null hypothesis:

There will be no significance difference on the posttest scores between groups of students exposed to either print or non-print content information.

The null hypothesis was not rejected in this study because the level of significance was above .05. Recommendations suggest further studies need to be conducted.

TEACHER SELECTION CRITERIA USED BY THE PRINCIPALS OF COBB COUNTY GEORGIA

John David Lenihan

(EdS, Educational Administration, August, 1980)

This study was conducted to identify those criteria which the principals of Cobb County Georgia view as being the most important in the teacher selection process. With an adequate supply of teachers available coupled with the passage of the Fair Dismissal Law by the 1973 Georgia Legislature, the need for improvements in the teacher selection process is obvious.

A review of the literature related to the teacher selection process was conducted. The questionnaire used by May and Doerge in Louisiana (1972) served as a model for this study. The modified questionnaire was administered to all principals within the Cobb County School System and to central office personnel from the level of director to superintendent. The mean for each item on the questionnaire was calculated and the means were ranked from highest to lowest for each group of principals.

An analysis of the data collected indicated the principals surveyed considered seven criteria to be essential to the teacher selection process. They are: (1) cooperative attitude, (2) classroom discipline, (3) compatible instructional methods in position applied for, (4) health, (5) pleasant personality, (6) verbal ability, and (7) expressed educational philosophy.

The following recommendations were then made. The recruitment program must continue and possibly be expanded. An updated application form should be completed and sent to the system office. The application form would be reviewed and reference verifications conducted.

An administrator from the Personnel Department would then conduct the first interview. All information collected, which is related to the most important criteria, should be recorded on a rating system. The next step would be for the principal to interview applicants, as vacancies occur. A third interview may be conducted by the teachers with whom the candidate would be working. The principal should then make a recommendation to hire or not to hire the candidate.

A STUDY OF APPLICATIONS FOR EMPLOYMENT WITH MARIETTA CITY SCHOOLS: 1977-1979

Jerry Locke (EdS, Educational Administration, August, 1980)

This study was conducted during 1980 at Marietta, Georgia. Applications for employment with Marietta City Schools were examined for the years 1977, 1978, and 1979. Applicants were divided into two groups for the study. One group was composed of those who were not employed by the school system, and the other group was composed of those who were employed by the Marietta City Schools. The purpose of the study was to identify factors which were different between the two groups and which may have been significant in eventual employment with Marietta City Schools.

Considered in the Study was the importance of such factors as subject area, certification, National Teacher Examination scores, race, sex, residence, geographic distribution, college degrees, number of years of prior experience, age, marital status, college placement files, and college honors. Data was collected for each of the factors that were thought to be important to employment. Analysis of the data indicated whether the factor had been decisive in the employment process.

It was found that some factors did relate to employment with the school system. Residents of the Atlanta area were most often hired. Teachers who had a minimum of one to three years of prior experience were favored over those without experience. Successful teacher candidates tended to be somewhat older than the unsuccessful candidates though there was not a great number of years of difference. Those applicants who were married were employed more often than single applicants, but the marital factor was possibly a coincidental factor related to age. In summary, some different characteristics were found for the two sets of teacher candidates.

AN APPROACH TO A DEFENSIBLE NONDISCRIMINATORY IDENTIFICATION MODEL FOR THE GIFTED

Robert R. Long (EdS, Special Education, August, 1980)

The purpose of this study was to develop an approach to a defensible, nondiscriminatory identification model for the gifted program of Rome City Schools.

A self study of the gifted program of Rome City Schools revealed a disproportionately small number of minority and disadvantaged students in the gifted program; and a need for a more equitable method of identifying those minority and disadvantaged students who are gifted.

Most gifted programs rely very heavily on group intelligence and group achievement test scores as part of their identification procedures. As a result, many disadvantaged children that are truly gifted, remain unidentified because they cannot be adequately measured.

Group tests that are presently in use have been validated on white, middle class, suburban subjects. Because group tests stress verbal ability, certain disadvantaged groups are penalized.

Researchers agree that an individual intelligence test is the most effective means of identification of the gifted. However, very few school systems have the resources with which to employ enough psychologists and psychometrists to administer and to interpret the results of individual tests in order to identify gifted students.

Because of the lack of resources, group tests must be used by school systems as part of their identification procedures. It is the contention of this study, that group intelligence and achievement tests can be used effectively tests can be used effectively and fairly to identify the gifted if local norms aredeveloped for various groups.

This study divided the school population of Rome City Schools into four groups: White Advantaged, White Disadvantaged, Black Advantaged, and Black Disadvantaged. Advantaged is defined by this study, as referring to those children who are not eligible to receive free of reduced school lunches according to the guidelines set by the U.S.D.A. Disadvantaged refers to those children who are eligible to receive free or reduced school lunches according the the U.S.D.A. guidelines.

The study develops the criteria to be used in the identification model and develops a rationale supporting the use of each criteria. Mean IQ scores on the Otil-Lennon Mental Ability test for fourth, fifth, and tenth grade students, were compared for each group using the analysis of variance procedure. A significant difference in the mean IQ score for each group was found to exist, thus lending support to the rationale for establishing and using local norms.

A similar comparison was made for sixth, seventh, and tenth grade students: using the mean reading and math scores on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills. A significant difference in the mean reading and mean math scores was also found to exist between the four groups, lending additional support to the rationale for developing local norms to minimize the verbal bias of group intelligence and achievement tests.

The study proposes an identification model consisting of six assessment items to be used in conjunction with the Baldwin Identification Matrix. The BIM pulls together all the assessment techniques used into a total score that can rank order students and allow selection according to the rank of the student.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF A RELIABLE INSTRUMENT TO MEASURE BASIC SKILLS COMPETENCY OF FIFTH GRADE STUDENTS OF BOWDON ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Susan Saxon Lovvorn

(EdS, Middle Grades Education, June, 1981)

A study was conducted to develop a reliable measure of English competency at the fifth-grade level. A teacher-made test was administered to 133 fifth-grade students from Bowdon Elementary School. The Basic English Competency Test - Level 5 was administered as a pretest and again as the posttest. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to determine the correlation between pretest and posttest scores. The correlation coefficient of .90 indicated the reliability of the instrument.

A SURVEY OF PRIVATE ENTERPRISE/ ECONOMICS/PERSONAL FINANCE EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Faye C. McBrayer (EdS, Secondary Education, August, 1980)

Problem

The purpose of this study was to identify those states requiring high school students to complete a private enterprise course in order to graduate and to determine commonalities among the mandates.

Subproblems

Subproblems taken from the problem and introduced in the study were:

1. To identify those states requiring high school students to complete a course in private enterprise/economics/personal finance prior to graduation.

2. To determine if a year of implementation was established.
3. To determine what titles had been given to the mandated course (s).
4. To find where in the curriculum the course (s) was placed.
5. To determine at what grade level (s) the course (s) was offered.
6. To determine commonalities among the courses offered.

Procedures

Information necessary to the solution of the problem regarding the status of private enterprise/economics/personal finance in the public secondary schools was solicited through the use of a transmittal letter and an eight-question survey instrument mailed to the persons serving as State Supervisors of Business Education in the fifty United States in August, 1979.

A follow-up letter, along with an additional copy of the original questionnaire, was mailed to each of the thirteen supervisors who had not responded by October 5, 1979.

The completed questionnaires were tabulated and analyzed with regard to specific subproblems and the results were reported through use of tables.

Data needed to solve the subproblem dealing with course commonalities were state-developed course guides for the required economics course (s). The guides were reviewed and analyzed for areas of similarity. Those commonalities deemed significantly to the study were pointed out in an attempt to obtain a more comprehensive view of economics education in the public secondary schools of the United States.

Conclusions

Seventeen states reportedly do require an economics course as a prerequisite to graduation. Two of the seventeen states require a unit of study rather than a full course.

Sixteen states reported years a mandate was passed and sixteen states reported established years for implementation of the mandate.

The title "Free Enterprise" was the title used must often and "Economics" was second in use.

Two states reported that the mandated course(s) must be placed in the Business curriculum. Four states placed the economics course in the Social Science curriculum. The remaining eleven states reported no specific area but a combination of two or more curriculums.

Grade level placement varied among the seventeen states requiring an economics course prior to graduation. The majority left placement to local option or specified grades nine through twelve inclusively.

Course guides were received from eight states. Included in the commonalities found were the areas of: economic concepts, broad objectives or goals, specific student objectives, course content, bibliography, glossary, evaluation techniques, suplementary materials, and developers of the course guides.

ADOLESCENT EGOCENTRISM IN THE CHARACTERS OF M. E. KERR

Roxana Marie Matter
(EdS, Secondary Education, March, 1981)

Psychologists have looked at adolescene, the period of transition from childhood to adulthood, from different perspectives. Piaget's perspective demonstrates that adolescence corresponds with the onset of the final and most mature stage of cognitive development, that of formal thought. Elkind, expnading upon Piaget's perspective, notes new mental structures that appear at this time and contends that new capacities for combinatorial thought, introspection, and construction help to account for many characteristics typical of this stage. According to Elkind, prominent among these characteristics related to adolescent cognitive development is that of adloscent egocentrism. Specific manifestations of adolescent egocentrism can lead to problems both for the adolescent and for others in his life. Such problems, in turn, provide recurrent themes in the "new realism" of the adolescent novel.

The primary purpose of this study is to determine the extent to which the unique and typical behaviors of adolescent egocentrism are manifested by the major adolescent characters in the seven adolescent novels of M. E. Kerr. Two secondary purposes are to determine the extent to which these characters provide a realistic view of adolescent concerns in terms of Elkind's theory and to confront the question of their probable usefulness in seeking satisfactory solutions to real life problems.

Seven adolescent novels are analysed in terms of the four specific characteristics of adolescent egocentrism-imaginary audience, personal fable, pseudostupidity, apparent hypocrisy—and additional indicators related to the development of adolescent egocentrism observed within the particular character.

Because adolescent egocentrism consists only of typical behaviors, it is sometimes difficult to detail clearly. Nonetheless, of the fourteen characters analysed, none manifest imaginery audience constructs, seven demonstrate personal fables, one manifests imaginary audience hypocrisy, and none show pseudostupidity. Eight of these characters present additional indicators demonstrating that they have progresssed to the formal operational stage of cognitive development. Additional indicators are most frequently related to the ability to think about one's own thoughts and those of others as separate entities.

Kerr's characters reveal manifestations of developmental characteristics and of egocentrism behaviors associated with cognitive progression into informal operational thought. These characters can provide teachers with increased insight into adolescent behavior and constitute a kind of classroom resource that will compel the attention of the learner.

Eight specific suggestions for further study include an extension of the present study to include two forthcoming Kerr novels for adolescents.

AN ANALYSIS OF ATTITUDES TOWARD THE GIFTED PROGRAM OF ELEMENTARY GIFTED STUDENTS IN THE CARROLL COUNTY ENRICHMENT PROGRAM

Glenda Meeks (EdS, Special Education, August, 1981)

This study was designed to measure attitudes of students toward the gifted program in the Carroll County, Georgia, Enrichment Program. Attitudes were analyzed based on the sex, grade level, and school of the participants.

The subjects of this study were students in grades four through eight in the Carroll County Enrichment Program in the Spring, 1981. Two hundred twenty-two students participated in the study.

An attitude survey developed by the Ferguson-Florissant, Missouri, School District's Gifted/Talented Program was completed by the students. The survey measures these four factors: Factor 1—Attitudes Toward the Gifted Program, Factor 2—Student Perceptions of Peer Attitudes Toward the Gifted Program, Factor 3—Improved Self-Awareness, and Factor 4—Variety of Activities Available to Students. Each response was indicated on a scale of 1-5. A mean score was computed for each of the four factors and for the total score for each hypothesis.

An analysis of variance was computed by the West Georgia computer center for each hypothesis on all four factors and the total scores of the attitude responses. A Duncan's Multiple Range Test was computed to locate the source of any factors showing a significant difference.

Hypothesis one stated that there would be no significant difference between attitudes of males and females toward the gifted program. This hypothesis was accepted for Factor 2 (student perceptions of peer attitudes toward the gifted program), Factor 3 (improved self-awareness), and Factor 4 (variety of activities available to students.) Factor 1 (student attitudes toward the gifted program) revealed a significant difference ($p = .046$). The attitude scores of females was again higher than those of males.

Hypothesis two stated that there would be no significant difference in the measured attitudes of different school populations. This hypothesis

was accepted for Factor 1 (attitude toward the gifted program), Factor 3 (improved self-awareness), Factor 4 (variety of activities available to students), and the total score. The Factor 2 (student perceptions of peer attitudes toward the gifted program) ratio was significant at a level of .002. A Duncan's Multiple Range Test revealed that school 7, Whitesburg, was significantly lower than the other schools.

Hypothesis three stated that there would be no significant differences on attitude scores by grade in school. Factor 1 (attitude toward the gifted program) was rejected ($p = .0018$). Grade 8 was significantly higher than the other grades. Factor 3 (improved self-awareness) revealed that grade 8 was again significantly different from and lower than the other grades ($p = .0088$). The hypothesis was accepted for factor 4 (variety of activities available to students) and the total score.

It appears that attitudes toward the gifted program were affected by sex and grade level of the students. The only factor affected by the different schools in the population was student perceptions of peer attitudes toward the gifted program. The grade level of the students caused a significant difference in the area of improved self-awareness, with grade 8 having a lower score. The total score of attitude by sex also revealed a significant difference in the attitudes of males and females toward the gifted program.

LISTENING ACCURACY: AN EVALUATION OF ONE ASPECT OF TRAINING IN INTERVIEW SKILLS

Phillip L. Mengel (EdS, Counseling and Educational Psychology, March, 1981)

The purpose of this study was to assess increased listening accuracy as a result of training in an interviewing skills workshop for the State of Georgia, Division of Family and Children Services eligibility interviewers.

Forms A and B of the Jones-Mohr Listening Test were used in that order to pretest and posttest participants before and after training in listening accuracy.

A chi square analysis of the frequency distribution of scores revealed that no significant change occured in listening accuracy at the .05 level. However, a t test comparison of experimental group pretest and posttest means indicated significant change occured at the .0001 level, while a control group showed no change.

EARLY CHILDHOOD SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN THE UNITED STATES

Clara Kay Nielsen
(EdS, Early Childhood Education, June, 1981)

This study was conducted to review programs for the preschool handicapped that would serve as models for use in the State of Georgia. It was the intent of the study to look at programs that could demonstrate success through follow-up in later years.

A visitation was made to the Frank Porter Graham Child Development Center at the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill. The purpose of the visit was to observe longitudinal programs in operation. An observation was also made of the preschool handicapped class operated in conjunction with the Chapel Hill Public School System. The current status of programs was discussed with researchers in the field.

The study concluded that handicapped children enrolled in preschool programs demonstrate better social, emotional, and educational adjustment in later years than children wh do not attend preschool.

Implementation of programming was discussed looking at identification and assessment, curriculum models, and parent involvement.

The conclusions reached were that early intervention results in improvement in achievement and IQ scores, reduction in special education placement, reduction in grade retention, and better adjustment to home and community.

The study was limited due to the fact that many of the programs in progress have not been going on long enough for the research to validate sufficient progress. The strategies, models, and plans may not be suitable for every school system or demonstration center, and therefore should not be generalized. However, it is felt that due to the recent trends in the education of the handicapped, the study has significance in presenting models that might be adopted in implementing programs for the preschool handicapped.

A COMPARISON OF THE READING ACHIEVEMENT OF STUDENTS USING THE LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE APPROACH WITH THE READING ACHIEVEMENT OF STUDENTS USING A BASAL READER

Jacqueline Owen

(EdS, Middle Grades Education and Reading, August, 1981)

The purpose of this study was twofold; first, to determine if the reading achievement of students using the language experience approach showed a significant difference when compared to the reading achievement of students using a basal reader approach. Secondly, included in this study was a reading attitude scale to determine if students using the language experience approach showed a significant difference in reading attitude when compared to students using a basal reader approach. The purposes were the bases for the 2 null hypotheses. The experimental group and the control group were each composed of 20 fifth-grade students housed at Rosemont Elementary School in Troup County, Georgia. In the absence of random sampling, it was assumed that the 2 groups were equivalent.

The study consisted of an experiment for 11 actual weeks wherein the experimental group was taught reading skills through the language experience approach using an interview type learning situation. The control group was taught reading skills through the use of a basal reader approach.

A reading achievement test and a reading attitude scale were given at the beginning and the end of the experiment as a pre-test and as a post-test. The *Analysis of Covariance* was used to accept or reject the hypotheses. The covariant was the pre-test scores of each testing instrument and the dependent variable was the post-test scores of each testing instrument. The level at which the hypotheses were accepted or rejected was the .05 level of probability.

In this class centered action study, the findings indicated that the language experience approach for teaching reading skills did not result in any significant differences in either reading achievement or reading attitude when compared with a basal reader curriculum. However, the students taught reading skills through the language experience approach did show improvement by writing longer stories, using longer and more varied sentences, using better punctuation, and acquiring note-taking and outlining skills.

Based on the findings, observations, and conclusions of this study, the researcher submits the following recommendations:

1. This study should be replicated in this present design using random sampling for the selection of the experimental and control groups.

2. This study should be conducted over a longer period of time.

3. This study should be conducted using samples from other grades to see if they would benefit from the language experience approach.

4. This study should be conducted again to test for paragraph construction, organization of material, grammar improvements, letter writing, spelling and length of stories.

THE EFFECT OF SPIRAL TEACHING IN MATHEMATICS OF THE ACHIEVEMENT OF SIXTH GRADE STUDENTS

Cathy L. Pruitt (EdS, Middle Grades Education and Reading, August, 1981)

This study was designed to determine what effect, if any, spiral teaching would have on the mathematical achievement of sixth-grade students.

Subjects used in this study were sixth-grade mathematics groups from two successive school years at Purks Elementary School, Cedartown, Polk County, Georgia. The two groups were assumed to be equivalent in regard to race, sex, age, socio-economic background, and previous mathematics experience and ability. During the 1979-1980 school year, the 32 students who comprised the control group received instruction for 75 minute class periods for 32 weeks using the traditional approach to teaching. During the 1980-1981 school year, the 26 students who comprised the experimental group received instruction for 55 minute class periods for 32 weeks using the spiral appraoch to teaching.

A pre- and posttest evaluation designed by the Polk County mathematics curriculum committee was administered to both groups by the investigator who conducted the experiment.

The analysis of variance of the gains was used to analyze the data. The null hypotheses were tested using the .05 level of significance. No significant gains were shown in the areas of fractions, per cent, graphing, measurement, geometry, and probability and statistics. A significant gain was shown favoring the control group in the area of ratio and proportion. Significant gains in the areas of whole numbers, decimals, and composite test scores were above favoring the experimental group. This would indicate that spiral teaching in mathematics within the purposes and limitations of this study does increase selective achievement in mathematics, specifically in the areas of whole numbers and decimals.

Although results indicated no significant differences in some comparisons, the mean gains in the areas of fractions, measurement, and geometry did favor the experimental group. It is recommended that further studies be made in this area to determine if these same findings hold true under different circumstances.

THE HISTORY OF DUE WEST SCHOOL AT A TIME OF TRANSITION

Delores Hightower Ruff
(EdS, Elementary Education, March, 1981)

This writer related the history of Due West Elementary School for two primary reasons. One, because there was not a written record that this writer was able to find and second, because it will be one of the schools so dramatically affected by the completion of the 120 loop. Just as East Cobb grew in the 1970's so West Cobb is going to grow in the 1980's.

This writer's plan was to talk to as many long-time residents as possible and the writer was successful in obtaining a list of over twenty people who went to Due West before it moved. Secondly, the plan was to tell what ocurred at Due West until the present, going all the way back in people's memory. A description of the old school is available. This description was made by the lead teacher in 1928, Miss Hansard. *The First One Hundred Years*, by Sarah Gober Temple is the most accurate book that this writer has seen and Mrs. Temple shows records of the school as far back as 1891. Mrs. Temple does not even imply that that was the school's first year. When the school first began was in 1841, this writer thinks, but at that time it was known as Gilgal. In 1864 the name was changed to the present one.

There are records and long-time residents who are still around who remember the tornado which did a great deal of damage to the school. Whether there were two tornadoes or whether people's memories have failed them could not be determined. However, this writer suspects the former. Either way, there were two according to information received.

This writer's beliefs were that because the school has been so rural it would not have some of the problems that other schools have faced. However, in the past five years, and into the 1980's, this writer believes that a dramatic change will take place in numbers and kinds of problems. This writer can only make suppositions about the future, but can certainly check the years since it reopened on its present site, 1958-1959. Upon completing the research this writer found that the suppositions are not true but the concepts do reveal themselves in middle and high school. Charts and graphs included are attendance, lists of staff and testing.

JOHN GARDNER'S HEROIC UNIVERSE

Gary Edward Simmers (MA, English, August, 1980)

In a literary climate predominated by the cynical and fatalistic viewpoint that denies the possibility of individual heroic affirmation, John Gardner emerges as an advocate for heroic literature. Gardner believes that a writer is obligated to tell a story that produces a positive moral response in

the reader, that promotes "the movement of humanity toward perfection."

In *The Resurrection*, a dying philosophy professor affirms life by learning to accept the "buzzing, blooming confusion" of life itself. In *Nickel Mountain*, a simple man, changed by love, grows to believe in the basic goodness of existence, the "holiness of things." The protagonist of *October Light*, a man who understands "life's gravity." discovers the "waste" of a fatalistic life and finally accpets life's "goodness." The protagonist of *The Sunlight Dialogues* learns that everything in life offers something of value and redeems his life by giving a "blessing" to all mankind. In *Grendel*, a monster's struggles with the universe change him from a fatalistic, half-human caricature of man's darker nature to a poet whose art offers mankind redemption. Finally, the *Wreckage of Agathon* offers a character whose very existence is an example of the affirmative potential inherent in the lives of all.

A STUDY OF PUPIL ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT DURING INTERNSHIP

Janice G. Sims (EdS, Special Education, August, 1981)

This study was devised to monitor the effects of a teacher's internship on her students' academic achievement. Fifty-three third, fourth, seventh and eighth grade students attending schools in several north Georgia counties qualified for the research. The children had been identified as learning disabled and were receiving services through resource rooms. They had been taught by the same teacher for at least two years.

Pretest and posttest scores from the Wide Range Achievement Test were obtained on each subject for the school years 1979-80 and 1980-81. The grade level scores were used to determine gains in reading, spelling, and arithmetic for both years. A t-test analysis on the gain scores was made.

Results from the analysis showed that there had been no significant increase in gain scores during the year of internship as opposed to the previous year. The data indicate that a teacher's internship does not made a difference in the academic achievement gain of the student.

THE EFFECTS OF RISK-TAKING AS VIEWED IN SELECTED ADOLESCENT NOVELS

Claire Lennard Stewart
(EdS, Secondary Education, March, 1981)

The purpose of this study was to determine whether risk-taking in eight selected adolescent novels was presented as a positive or a negative value. Twelve protagonists, ranging in age from twelve years to middle age, were

analyzed in order to determine their motivation for risk-taking, the effect of the risk-taking on themselves, and their moral maturity levels before and after the risks. The overall effect of the risk-taking was then analyzed to determine whether risk-taking was presented in a positive or negative light. Conclusions were drawn concerning patterns that existed among these novels with respect to risk-taking.

An analysis indicated that there was no similarity of background or character type among the protagonists, nor was there a consistent initial moral maturity level. Although there was a difference in the intensity of risks taken, three patterns which emerged concerning the type of risk taken by protagonists involved social disapproval, disruption of a family or social relationship, or life.

The effect of the risk-taking on the protagonists was found to be positive in every instance when the risk-taking was motivated by concern with the welfare of another character or, in one case, by a desire for personal growth. The personal effect of the risk on these protagonists was positive in that all these characters achieved an inner freedom despite the fact that the immediate consequences of their risks were not pleasant except in one instance.

The protagonists whose risks had negative outcomes were motivated by selfish interests, or they acted without regard for the harmful consequences to others. For these protagonists the immediate consequences were either highly undesirable, or they were perceived to be desirable by the protagonists who lacked awareness of what they had risked. When the risk-taking was positive, the moral maturity levels of the protagonists progresses to the highest level or descended to a lower one.

The overall effect of the risk-taking in each novel correlated with its effect on the protagonist: when results of risk-taking were undesirable for the protagonists, the entire novel discouraged risk-taking; when positive outcomes resulted for protagonists, risk-taking as a whole was portrayed as a positive venture.

Implications for classroom use involve the use of adolescent novels such as these to develop adolescent perception of risk-taking. By examining the outcome of responsible, selfless risk-taking as opposed to selfish or misguided risk-taking, adolescents can clarify their own values.

THERAPY AND THE CREATIVE PROCESS

John H. Stuhrman (MA, Psychology, March, 1981)

Understanding the creative process within oneself is most important in understanding this thesis. What I have found to be an interesting problem in my own life, is shared by many others today in attempting to blend the spiritual and the scientific. The field in science that best meets with the mystical is of course, psychology. There is still a deep split between

scientific and mystical thought, and few personalities accomplish these diverse ways of understanding life. We can find within ourselves from one time to another leanings to either of these ways, and it is the relationship between these two that can lead to the development of creativity.

I have written this thesis as an exercise to follow rather than having it be something that has the answers. I would hope for it to evoke more questions than answers because there is little creativity when we have only the answers. It will be the affect this thesis has on the reader that I am concerned with, and to bring this about I have used a blend of language that is not always easily accepted. This is because I am trying to speak to two antagonistic parts within ourselves. One part is confined to our senses in which we weigh and measure our lives, and the other points to what is beyond what we can sense. To point beyond what we can sense is represented in such words as infinite, permanent, and perfection. These words can give an impression to the senses without giving any meaning beyond this, what they represent however, has much more value to us than what they merely give as sense impressions. It is the value of something that has us notice it as having a creative quality.

In the confines of our sensory experience we desire to express all that we perceive so that it is communicated just as we experience it. Different ways of seeing and experiencing have led to different ways of expression. As language evolves new ways of expressing new experiences are sought out to avoid being bogged down in language that our senses are all too familiar with, and do not allow us to see any deeper meaning. In spite of this we must remember that there is an audience we are addressing, and it would be helpful to them if we spoke their language. This thesis addresses a relatively new blend of people, those who have mixed psychology and mysticism in an attempt to give their lives and the lives of others a fuller meaning.

I see this blending as being fundamental in a creative process in human relationships both within and externally. There has been very little success in evolving a language which can deal with this problem consistently in the English tongue, and I have tried to cope as best with this problem as I can. In a thesis such as this, mixing the language of the scientist with the language of the mystic leads to an affect within the reader that needs further exploration to bring out and evolve the problems of integration. Yet, I have not written this to explain anything precisely when I cannot do this, nor to totally leave it as all mystifying when it does not have to be.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF A SCHOOL SUPERVISED LUNCH PROGRAM TO AN IN-SCHOOL CATERED PROGRAM

Christopher Joseph Tully
(EdS, Educational Administration, August, 1980)

This project compared two school system's lunch programs. South Cobb High School in Cobb County, Georgia utilized the program as dictated by federal and state guidelines when subsidies and aid are received, and Benton High School in Benton, Arkansas, whose program is composed of an outside vendor in combination with a variety of vending machines. The only state aid permitted and received by the latter system is the subsidation of the milk program.

Most of the observation and data collection were done in one visit to Benton High School. The remainder of the data used for Benton was from information furnished by the principal of Benton High School and the Chamber of Commerce. Data for the South Cobb High School was collected in one day; however, observations were made over a period of eight years. Very little written material was available relating to the Benton plan and material relating to government subsidized and regulated programs was limited to government pamphlets, bulletins and research papers. Reference was made to a research paper on a program similar to Benton's plan in Clarke County, Nevada. Analytical comparisons were made on the two schools in areas outside the lunch program, but do affect the programs.

Benton has practically scrapped the lunch program involving federal and state aid. It still receives state aid in the milk program. It is felt by all concerned that the current program is far superior to the former method of depending wholly on state and federal aid. However, South Cobb is not faced with the same problem that Benton had when it made its decision to change from very low participation and a money losing proposition. South Cobb did make alterations to broaden its accommodations and the trend has continued toward a program which serves meals similar to those of a program like Benton's.

Benton's plan should not be scoffed at and ridiculed as contributing to improper and insufficient diets. It feeds a larger percentage of the students some food and waste has practically been eliminated. Alterations of the federal and state regulated lunch program are in order and programs similar to the one in Benton High School are good ones to observe for suggestions.

THE STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF THE EARLY CHILDHOOM EDUCATION PROGRAM AT WEST GEORGIA COLLEGE ON UNDERGRADUATES AFTER ENTERING THE TEACHING PROFESSION WITH A VALIDATION FROM THEIR SUPERVISORS

Angie Carolyn White Turner
(EdS, Early Childhood Education, June, 1981)

The purpose of this study was to determine the results of an evaluation questionnaire concerning the effects of the early childhood education program at West Georgia College on undergraduates after entering the teaching profession with a validation from their supervisors.

Seventy-three questionnaire results were tabulated. The results showed that the early childhood education program at West Georgia College had a positive effect on undergraduates after entering the teaching profession with a validation by their supervisors.

A FIRST YEAR EVALUATION OF THE RAND McNALLY SPELLING PROGRAM FOR FIFTH GRADE STUDENTS

Anne Johnson Weaver (EdS, Middle Grades Education, June, 1981)

This study determined any increase in spelling achievement among fifth grade students at Canton Elementary School that resulted from the implementation of the *Rand McNally Spelling Program.*

The subjects of this study were two heterogeneous groups of fifth grade students at Canton Elementary School in Cherokee County, Canton, Georgia. The two groups were considered to be of equivalent ability, age, and sex. They were also considered representative of the total fifth grade population.

Seventy-three students participated in the study. Thirty-seven were members of the control group, and thirty-six were members of the experimental group.

The study was conducted during the first semester of the 1980-1981 school year from August 25, 1980 to January 15, 1981. Each treatment period was fifteen minutes daily for the experimental group and control group. Both groups were instructed by the same teacher.

The experimental group was instructed by the teaching manual of the *Rand McNally Spelling Program.* The control group was instructed by the teaching manual of the *Silver Burdett Spell Correctly Series* which was formerly used in this school.

The WRAT (Wide Range Achievement Test) Spelling Subtest, Level I was used as the pretest and posttest. The raw data were analyzed by the West Georgia College Computer Center in Carrollton, Georgia.

and two comparing pretest scores with posttest scores in the experimental and control groups. Both null hypotheses were rejected since both the experimental and control group gained significantly at the .05 level of significance.

The Analysis of Covariance was used to test hypothesis three which compared the gain scores of the experimental group and the control group. I.Q. scores were used as the covariate. The data indicated that although the mean gain of the experimental group was slightly higher than the mean gain of the control group, this gain was not significant at the .05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

DEVELOPMENT OF SCHOOL INTERNATS AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON THE CONEPT OF THE "NEW MAN" IN USSR

Barbara Rose Westfall
(EdS, Secondary Education, August, 1980)

This study delves into how the Soviets use education as an instrument in weaving a tighter Communist society. It points out the many diversities of cultures within that nation, gives an insight into the type of educational system that preceded the Revolution of 1917, and focuses on the specific needs for the development of the school internat, the Soviet boarding school. In 1956, Premier Khrushchev instigated a return to educating the masses in internats as the elite had been educated during the Tsarist regimes. To understand the ultimate goal designed for these school internats, the framework of the study involved a documented review of literature in American and Soviet publications.

Data showed that although the school internat is still in use, the projected aims of massive internment of the Soviet children has not been realized. Due to economic reasons and a changing society, the role of the school internat in Soviet education has diminished. There is documented evidence that the schools currently in operation do influence the concept of the "new man" in the USSR.

Since 1961 the emphasis on the school internats has been negated. Relatively little or no research has involved this program.

Contemporary Soviet education has centered around neighborhood schools which have extended hours. The underlying rationale for these is that they are not only lower in cost to operate but achieve the same goals that were projected for the school internats. Accordingly, these Soviet

students develop to their fullest potential while, simultaneously, are being indoctrinated with the Marxist-Leninist ideology. Furthermore, these prolonged day schools relieve the parents for productive labor during the work day.

A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE LEVEL OF EDUCATION AND RACIAL/SEXUAL ATTITUDES OF EARLY CHILDHOOD STUDENTS AT WEST GEORGIA COLLEGE, CARROLLTON, GEORGIA

Vivian Goodson Westmoreland
(EdS, Early Childhood Education, August, 1981)

A study was conducted to determine how different groups of students view the faculty and administration in relation to racism and sexism and to obtain the students' view in relation to racism and sexism in the Early Childhood Education Department during the winter quarter of the 1980-81 academic year.

This study provided a basis to support or reject the hypothesis that the opinionaire responses of the sixth-year students will be keyed numerically lower than those of the fifth-year graduate students and the undergraduate students with respect to their:

a. own sexual attitudes
b. own racial attitudes
c. opinions of sexual attitudes of the college faculty and administration
d. opinions of racial attitudes of the college faculty and administration

An opinionnaire was provided for each student in the Early Childhood Education Department to complete, during the winter quarter, 1980-81. The multifactor ANOVA was used in comparing the opinions of undergraduates, fifth-year students, and sixth-year students about sexism and racism with the students' opinions of the racial and sexual attitudes of the college faculty and administration. The results showed a significant difference for students on sexism and racism but none on students' perception of faculty's attitudes. The correlation coefficient was significantly positive for all students and how they perceive faculty as feeling about sexism and racism. There was nothing significant about how undergraduates feel about sexism and racism and how they perceive faculty feels. There is a significant difference between opinions of fifth-year and sixth-year students about sexism and racism and fifth-year and sixth-year students' opinions of racial and sexual attitudes of the college faculty and

administration. Each opinionnaire was scored for a total. The mean for each group of students showed undergraduates scored lowest; fifth-year students next; and sixth-year students highest.

The hypothesis stated that the opinionnaire responses of the sixth-year students will be keyed numerically lower than those of the fifth-year graduate students and the undergraduate students with respect to their:

a. own sexual attitudes
b. own racial attitudes
c. opinions of sexual attitudes of the college faculty and administration
d. opinions of racial attitudes of the college faculty and administration

This hypothesis was refuted.

A recommendation was made for further studies using a larger sample.

A TRADITIONAL APPROACH VERSUS A SMALL GROUP MANIPULATIVE APPRAOCH IN TEACHING BEGINNING MULTIPLICATION AND DIVISION AT THE THIRD GRADE LEVEL

Wanda Pritchett Williams

(EdS, Early Childhood Education, December, 1981)

This study was an attempt to determine any differences in achievement between two groups of subjects, who were taught beginning multiplication and division by two different methods.

The subjects for this study were two third-grade classes at Westside Elementary School in Rocky Face, Georgia. The subjects were placed in each classroom without regard to socio-economic background, academic achievement, or mental ability.

The control group, a class of nineteen students, was taught beginning multiplication and division using only the traditional method. The experimental group, a class of nineteen students, was taught multiplication using the small group manipulative appraoch to teaching beginning multiplication and division facts. At the beginning of this study a multiplication and division pretest was administered to both groups. The instruction period lasted six weeks, at the end of which time a posttest was administered to both groups. A delayed posttest was given four weeks after the study had ended.

Since there were only two groups to compare, the t-test was employed on the data from each of the comparisons: the results at the end of the treatment perios and the results at the time of the delayed posttest. The results of the tests at the end of the posttest and the delayed posttest did not

reveal a significant difference at .05 level between the experimental and traditional groups.

It is recommended that similiar studies of a longer duration be conducted with students from different schools to see if the results are similar.

IDENTIFICATION AND SUBSEQUENT EDUCATION OF THE GIFTED STUDENT IN THE SCHOOLROOM BY THE CLASSROOM TEACHER

(Barbara A. Wood, EdS, Special Education, March, 1981)

Identification of the gifted child is often a neglected task even in the modern day classroom. A lack of teacher awareness, which can be attributed to a lack of interest but most probably to a lack of training, is the major obstacle facing a successful gifted student education program. For without proper identification, worthwhile education for the gifted cannot possibly be offered. Therefore, the purpose of this research paper is to study the ways in which gifted students have been identified and educated throughout educational history. A study of past and current methods reveals a degree of success in this worthwhile endeavor, but such a study also points out the extent of progress yet to be made. Through such a study, a new instrument can be developed to improve present methods of identification.

A comprehensive search of literature related to the needs of gifted children offers, in addition to specific recounts of educational information concerning the gifted, an overview of what an educator might learn to expect of most gifted students. An awareness of common traits provides basic background material which, if coupled with training, can be valuable to any educator. The testing procedures used today to specifically identify students who are suspected to be gifted are quite successful. But the tests are not given to all students, so the basic problem is to identify those students who must be tested.

Taking into consideration the personality traits and classroom behavior generally exhibited by students whom educators know from previous testing to be gifted, an instrument to be used by the classroom teacher to identify other such students can be assembled. The instrument presented in this research paper is the result of the findings of many authors writing on the subject of giftedness—findings which form the basis for the knowledge currently held by educators concerning the gifted. Personal experience with gifted students in the classroom lends further background to the formation of questions for the instrument.

The obvious conclusion to a valid identification program for the gifted is a comprehensive program for the gifted students' special learning requirements. The education systems in the United States must prepare to provide qualified teachers for the gifted. The teachers, in addition to being able to identify the gifted students, must be traineed to teach them and channel their interests into avenues worthy of their gifted talents.

Brantley, Daniel

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"Communication Theory and the Georgia Legislature." Paper read at the Georgia Political Science Association, February 1981.

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"Community Power Studies," University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland, November 8-9, 1979 and ,arch 17-18, 1980, sponsored by the National Science Foundation.

"Parties, Politics, and Government in the United States, 1850 to the Present," Center for Political Studies at the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, June 23-August 15, 1980, sponsored by the National Endowment for the Humanities 1980 Summer Seminar.

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Dr. Jonathan Goldstein

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Powell, Bobby

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The purpose of this publication is to provide encouragement for faculty research and to make available results of such activity. The *Review,* Published annually, accepts original scholarly work and creative writing. West Georgia College assumes no responsibility for contributors' views. The style guide is Kate L. Turabian's, *A Manual for Writers.* Although the *Review* is primarily a medium for the faculty of West Georgia College, other sources are invited.

An annual Bibliography includes doctoral dissertations, major recitals and major art exhibits. Theses and articles in progress or accepted are not listed. A faculty member's initial listing is comprehensive and appears in the issue of the year of his employment. The abstracts of all master's theses and educational specialist's projects written at West Georgia College are included as they are awarded.

CHRISTIANITY AND SCIENCE FICTION: AN ANALYSIS OF THE RELIGIOUS ASPECTS OF *The Mote in God's Eye*

by William S. Doxey

The idea for this brief discussion of Chriatianity and science fiction came in part from a recent investigation of mine regarding several authors' use of culture as an aspect of style. It seems to me that, consciously or not, writers employ culture in order to create life-like characters and scenes and also to develop conflict. For example, for his historical romances Sir Walter Scott chose moments in history when two cultures were in conflict and the outcome was in doubt. Scott used languages, social customs, technologies, religions—and so forth—for verisimilitude and for plot. Moreover, it would seem that the values of the books beyond entertainment are manifested in the things of culture. For instance, one gains some understanding of both conquerer and conquered as he experiences Scott's treatment of Norman and Saxon cultures in *Ivanhoe.*

An anlaysis of Christianity in one science fiction novel is obviously limited; yet, since religion is an aspect of culture, and since culture is used by authors to develop character and plot, I think that such an analysis is profitable for several reasons. First, it may help us to understand the meaning of the novel better; second, it may, by offering a prediction of a future form of Christianity, help us to reflect more thoughtfully upon religion's present state; finally since more and more serious readers are turning to science fiction, an analysis of a single novel of that type may help us to identify the values that these readers are interested in having expressed, especually since most of science fiction deals with future societies dominated by technologies tending to dehumanize/depersonalize life.

That *The Mote in God's Eye*, by Larry Niven and Jerry Pournelle, at least touches upon religion is suggested by its title, the source of which is Matthew 7:3, "And why beholdest thou the mote that is in thy brother's eye, but considerest not the beam that is in thine own eye?" cited at the beginning of the novel.[1] Changing "thy brother-s eye" to "God's eye" is necessary for artistic considerations, as well as religious (which will be examined later), for the setting of the story is a region of space far from our

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[1]Larry Niven and Jerry Pournelle, *The Mote in God's Eye* (New York: Pocket Books, 1974); references to this source are by page numbers in parentheses.

solar system which is obscured by a dense "nebular mass of dust and gas" called by Earth astronomers "The Coal Sack" and by the inhabitants of the Earth colony New Scotland "The Face of God," since from their vantage the nebular resembles a gigantic "hooded man" whose face is marked by a great red star known as "God's Eye" and by a dim companion star called "The Mote" (p. 47).

The existence of a colony so distant from Earth is made plausible by a prefatory chronology spahhing 1048 years, from Neil Armstrong's moon-walk of 1969 to first contact with aliens in 3017. We learn that deep space colonization is possible because, first, in 1990 the U.S. and U.S.S.R. formed a "CoDominium", and, second, in 2008 the Alderson interstellar drive system (making instantaneous travel via "tramways" between stars possible) was perfected, along with the Langston Field (which protected ships and travelers from stellar heat).

By 2020 the first colonies were established and Earth gradually lessened in importance to human life. The CoDominium ended in 2013 and, after a period of strife, was replaced by the "Empire of Man" under the direction of Leonidas I in 2250. Peace and tranquility lasted until 2603, when "Secession Wars" began which continued through a period of so-called "Dark Ages" until 2930, when Leonidas IV established the "Second Empire of Man" governed by an hereditary ruler and titled nobleman and supported by an Imperial Church, space traders, and scientists.

The central conflict of *The Mote in God's Eye* concerns what is to be done about the alien beings known as "Moties" who inhabit a planet of the star Mote. Religion, especially Christianity, plays an important part in both the development and the resolution of this conflict.

Although there is an "official" church associated with the Empire, everyone seems to be free to worship as he pleases. The four religions evident in the novel are Islam, The Church of Him, the Motie belief, and the Imperial Church. Each persuasion is associated with a character or characters.

That receiving the least attention is Islam, the religion of a single character, His Excellency Horace Hussein Bury, a somewhat villainous space trader of enormous wealth who makes frequent mention of the will of Allah, and whose solution to the Motie problem is to exterminate the aliens. It would seem that Bury's religion serves more to characterize him as a shady fellow of the Levantine merchant sort than to develop any values that are significant to the total novel.

An amazing astronomical event led to the creation of The Church of Him. When Mote, the dim companion to God's Eye on The Face of God, suddenly blazed brilliantly, a colonist of New Scotland named Howard

Grote Littlemead proclaimed that God had awakened and divinely inspired him to form The Church of Him. When the light from Mote abruptly ceased some years later, Littlemead's reaction was to announce that God had gone back to sleep and to take an overdose of sleeping pills to be with Him. The Himmist church continued, however, at least partly because of the presence of the great hooded figure in the heavens. While no Himmist creed is set forth, several characters visit a sanctuary on New Scotland, and, after the advent of the aliens, the "Grand Deacon" of the church demands proof that the Moties are "angels", while a Himmist faction proclaims they are "devils" (p. 458). It is apparent that the Imperial Church would rather the Church of Him did not exist, for in response to the Deacon's plea the Cardinal wishes to make public "tapes of Moties life" to "finish off the Himmists once and for all" (p. 458). Such does not come to pass, however, and the Himmists are as much in evidence at the conclusion as in the beginning.

The real significance of the dimming of Mote is discovered a hundred and fifteen years later, in 3017, when first contact is made with alien life. The sudden brilliance of the dim star was caused by batteries of laser cannons on its planet whose beams of coherent light propelled a small space capsule attached to an immense light sail towards New Scotland where it is intercepted by a space cruiser. The single Motie passenger is dead.

At this point it is necessary to reflect that the appearance of an alien life form would have much to do with the way in which humans might deal with it. For novelistic purposes, Moties must, therefore, be curiously different enough from humans to be recognizably alien, yet must not be so grotesquely strange and loathsome that Earthlings would be fatally insensitive to them.

Moties are bipedal and bilaterally symmetrical—from the waist down; above the waist they are asymmetrical, having on one side a single large arm equipped with a powerful hand for gripping objects, and on the other side two slender arms, attached to two shoulders, fitted with smaller hands for performing delicate tasks. They have no necks, so must turn at the waist. Their faces have two eyes, a slit-like nose and lip-less mouth. They are covered with soft fur. Above all else, they are extremely intelligent, have an amazing linguistic facility, and are able to mimic human gestures so skillfully that in a short time humans forget they are aliens.

As the story develops, we learn that the Moties have no religion based upon belief in a divine being, and that while some believe they have souls, "some don't" (p. 480). They do, however, worship their children and believe that through them they live after death. This "offspring worship" causes them to be extremely dangerous to themselves and to humans.

The fact of the matter is that Moties are born male and change into females who must breed or die. Since children are sacred to them, and since death with no hope for after-life is the consequence of not breeding (except for certain sterile "mules" who serve as counselors for the leaders), the Motie society periodically becomes so overpopulated that decimating wars ensue. The culture of Mote is at least a million years old; the population cycles occur every thousand years; only the existence of technological "museums" enable the Moties to avoid returning to their own "stone age" again and again. Since they cannot and will not give up their religion of offspring worship, the Moties must discover a means of space travel that will enable them to escape from their planet. As a matter of fact it seems that some centuries before, one of them stumbled upon a type of Alderson drive; however, he did not discover a protective field, so his first space trip was his last. The imperial scientists believe that it is only a matter of time, however, before the Moties develop such a system. Then they will populate the universe and by sheer numbers overwhelm all other forms of life.

Confronting this problem is the Imperial Church as well as the government and scientists. While the Church, as represented throughout the novel by Chaplain Hardy of the navy and from time to time by Archbishop Randolph, its titular head, is willing to consider the Motie problem from many angles, it is absolutely inflexible on one point: the Moties must not be exterminated, for they "are neither angels or devils" but "intelligent beings much like us" who pose no "spiritual threat" to mankind (p. 466). The Church has not, however, assigned the Moties "their place" in theology (p. 466).

The Imperial Church seems derived from the Anglican with a mixing of icon worship of Russian Orthodoxy, a holdover it would seem, from CoDominium days parralled by vestiges of Russian culture found amongst colonists from that area of Earth, and ironically mingled with the naming of a space cruiser after the atheist Lenin. The *Book of Common Prayer*, with a few futuristic changes, seems to be the handbook of the Church. On one occasion Archbishop Randolph blesses the ships by intoning, "Glory be to the Father, the Son, and the Holy Ghost," concluding with, "As it was in the beginning, is now and ever shall be, *worlds* without end, amen" (p. 93, italics mine).

After some of the crew are killed in the region of Mote, Hardy and Chaplain George Alexis of the *Lenin* conduct a funeral service, part of which reads: "I am the Resurrection and the Life, saith the Lord. Whosoever believeth in Me, though he were dead, yet shall he live: and whosoever liveth and believeth in Me, shall never die" (p. 390). This is followed by: "I heard a voice from Heaven saying unto me, Write. From henceforth blessed are the dead who die in the Lord . . ." (p. 390). At this point a recording of the navy choir singing "Dies Irae" is played: "Day of

wrath, and doom impending, David's words with Sybil's blending," with the futuristic modification "heavens and worlds" for "heaven and earth in ashes ending" (p. 390).

At last a slightly modified version of the "Burial of the Dead at Sea" is read over the fallen as they are jettisoned from the cruiser and committed to "the deeps of space [rather than to the deep] . . . in sure and certain hope of the resurrection unto eternal life, though our Lord Jesus Christ; at whose coming in glorious majesty to judge the Worlds [in place of world], the seas [in place of sea] shall yeild their dead" (p. 391).

The above analysis indicates that while the offspring worship of the alien Moties indeed causes a dangerous problem for mankind, it is the Christian reverence for all life implicit in the Imperial Church's inflexible opposition to a "final solution" that elevates *The Mote in God's Eye* from the realm of space western to that of serious literature. If the aliens—that is: those who though "other" than us still exist as part of Creation—are not to be killed, what is to be done about them? For one thing, three Motie ambassadors are to live with the family of commander Blaine, the hero of the novel; they will interact with him and his wife and especially with their young children, who, at the conclusion, are beginning to learn the complex Motie language. Perhaps as they become acculturated they will discover a simple solution to the seemingly insoluable problem. For one thing, the Imperial Church is not idle either; Chaplain Hardy has been appointed the "first apostolic delegate to an alien race" (p. 545). Perhaps the Christianity that has endured transportation through the deeps of space as well as the rise and fall of empires will have a beneficial effect upon the alien Moties.

Finally, let us reconsider the title of this novel. In the same chapter of Matthew which is its source we find Christ teaching us that "whatever you would have people do for you, do the same for them." To apply this idea to an alien race is so astounding that, it seems to me, the thoughtful reader comes away from *The Mote in God's Eye* with a feeling that the future, whether distant or near, might be as much an occasion for hope as for despair. In view of today's world I find this to be no small accomplishment on the part of the authors.

NEW DIRECTIONS IN RURAL COMMUNITY PLANNING

*Dick G. Winchell**

I. Introduction

Planning in many rural communities has become identified as an intrusive, negative function of government. Much of the blame can be placed upon the planning discipline which has applied urban planning techniques to rural communities. This application has universally taken the form of standardized zoning regulations which control development within the built environment, and to a lesser extent comprehensive plan documents which set general land use policies. Planning is viewed as either a set of regulations which restrict business and community use of lands or as generalized reports which do not relate to critical problems. This paper will examine how this negative perception and application of planning has developed, will identify the current directions within the planning discipline, and will suggest a number of alternative directions to make rural planning an effective, positive function of local government.

II. The Problem with Planning

It is unfortunate that an understanding has evolved of planning as strictly a set of land use regulations. The origins of the problem lie with the first conceptualization of planning processes in local government in the Standard City Planning Enabling Act of 1928 and other documents of that era. Although a comprehensive plan is essential to the development of a zoning code, such plans were not incorporated into planning processes at the local level. An effective plan must include both comprehensive concepts of future land uses, the comprehensive plan, and short term guidelines for development. Part of the problem is that the comprehensive plan is composed of general concepts of land use, is long range in scope, and has no legal impact upon land use. As such, comprehensive plans appear to be luxuries since they do not relate to critical day-to-day decisions in a specific manner which could be legally binding. Most cities adopted zoning acts in isolation, with no rationale for zoning districts, ignoring the need for a comprehensive plan to serve as a basis for zoning.

The landmark decision of Euclid v. Ambler Realty[1] determined that a city could create and legally uphold a zoning ordinance. The decision in 1926 influenced the drafters of the Standard City Planning Enabling Act in 1928 and set the fate for planning in the United States.

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[1]Village of Euclid v. Ambler Realty Company, 272 U.S. 365, 47 s. Ct. 114, 71 L ED. 303 (1926).

With the legality of zoning ordinances firmly established, forty-five states passed enabling legislation to permit cities to adopt zoning ordinances by 1927, and by the end of 1930 zoning ordinance were in effect in 1981 municipalities affecting 67 percent of the population.[2] Zoning was based upon existing land use and whatever reasonable, apparent, or expedient changes could be approved. Black suggests:

> As a result of this confusion and the growing interest in zoning, many communities prepared and adopted zoning ordinances without ever making the land use plan on which zoning should be based. This diverted attention from general, long-range policies to the controversial details which seem to dominate zoning questions.[3]

Zoning was king, although the rationale for zoning, which was to be found in the comprehensive planning document, was generally absent.

Comprehensive land use planning was not readily accepted, lacking the recognizable utility of zoning. Failures to establish enabling legislation in many states including Georgia mandated other forms of enactment. One stimulus for implementing comprehensive planning came through Model Cities and Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) programs requiring at least minimal comprehensive plan documents. Another stimulus was state legislation requiring comprehensive plans in a number of states, notably California and Oregon.

The major Federal stimulus to local community efforts at comprehensive planning came through the HUD 701 Comprehensive Planning Program which provided federal funding to cities and counties to complete comprehensive plans. For the most part, products of these planning efforts did not directly relate to the need of the communities. Instead they produced voluminous documents of little value to local officials facing urgent problems.

The history of land use planning in municipal governments has comprised two distinct aspects, one creating zoning and the other drafting esoteric comprehensive plans. Zoning has often resulted in community conflict while comprehensive planning documents have been used predominantly to hold down the shelves of government offices.

III. Current Planning Efforts

By the 1980s, these problems in planning indicated a bleak future for planners. First, following an analysis of federal expenditures, funds for

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[2]Z. Charles M. Haar, *Land Use Planning: A Casebook on the Use, Misuse, and Re-Use of Urban Land.* Third Edition (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1977). pp. 203-204.

[3]Alan Balck, *"The Comprehensive Plan," Principles and Practice of Urban Planning,* ed. William I. Goodman (Washington, D.C.: The International Managers' Association. 1968). p. 353.

comprehensive planning have been nearly eliminated through discontinuation of the HUD 701 programs and less emphasis on planning activities funded under the HUD Community Development Block Grant Programs. Increased costs which resulted in extensive comprehensive plan regulations at the state level such as those in California have generally been modified to be less restrictive.

Second, a critical effort has been made to reduce zoning regulations and speed up the development process within city governments while maintaining some semblance of the initial zoning codes. In effect, this is the worst direction possible, maintaining but weakening zoning documents which were often ill-conceived in terms of comprehensive planning and local community values in the first place. These directions in the 80s fail to recognize the alternatives which exist within the planning discipline. In spite of zoning and comprehensive planning failures, the processes of directing future development or protecting public versus private interests are necessary functions of local government which someone carries out. Professional planners must explore alternative actions if they will be leaders in this effort.

IV. Planning Alternatives

Planning in its broadest sense can be defined as a decision-making process. This process has several steps: the collection of data or inventory of existing conditions; analysis of data; identification of alternative actions and recommendations. The process is generally applied to land use issues, and the results are presented to decision makers in the form of an evaluation of alternative actions. Such policy planning is a research effort made by city staff to help elected leaders make the decisions which best serve the public interest. Two features of this definition are important.

First, as a process, planning is constantly creating and integrating new information for the analysis of alternative actions to be taken by government officials. In practice, planning has been seen as a static or one-time process, such as determining the zoning for a given parcel of land. As attitudes, economic conditions and political frameworks change, the assessment of alternative actions also changes. Because planning is a dynamic rather than static process, planning must begin to relate to some general values or guidelines which set the framework for community development, rather than become embroiled in specific issues without any adequate relationship to the changing community.

The second feature of planning is that it is a policy-oriented process. In effect, planners should not and do not make ultimate decisions. To be most effective, they should study an issue by applying the planning process which identifies the alternative actions available and evaluates their

expected outcomes. The final decisions are left to elected leaders, who are best able to represent the local community, since they are subject to recall and re-election based upon their actions.

Perhaps the most creative new direction for planning lies in the area of policy analysis, where planners together with other social scientists focus on effective decision-making. Planning within such a decision-making or policy context does follow a process, rather than present a static description of issues. More importantly, such a planning effort leads to the analysis of issues in a context that local leaders can understand. Instead of the voluminous comprehensive planning documents typically handed decision-makers, a comprehensive assessmet of a particular issue or decision is provided. Because policy planning is comprehensive, it lists all alternatives and gives the decision-makers extensive information on specific issues. Because policy planning is a process, it provides a decision-making framework but leaves the ultimate decisions to elected leaders and the community.

Another feature of policy planning is that it goes beyond the narrow restrictions of more traditional land use planning. In fact, all aspects of government and public sector development are impacted by planning processes, so planning needs to consider this wider range of municipal activities. Policy planning expands the role of planners, while making their contributions more relevant to elected leaders, businessmen, and the public at large.

V. Rural Community Development and Planning

Perhaps at no other level are the problems of planning so great as in rural communities. For the most part, such communities have been dependent upon state enabling legislation and whatever technical assistance was available at state and regional levels to meet planning needs. With these constraints, few communities have progressed beyond the adoption of a zoning ordinance which may or may not be effective or the completion of a comprehensive plan which is often little understood by local community members.

Such problems are finally being exposed by a number of studies which attempt to indicate new or better directions for planning in rural areas. Central to most of these studies is the fact that planning in rural areas is based upon urban planning principles.[4] As a result, only the same problems which exist with planning in urban areas can be resolved. Urban planning techniques including standard zoning ordinances and standardized comprehensive planning reports are inappropriate in many

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[4]Frederick Sargent, *Rural Environment Planning* (Montpelier, Vermont: University of Vermont, 1976); and Judith Getzels and Charles Thurrow, eds. *Rural and Small Town Planning* (Washington, D.C.: American Assoc., 1979), for example.

rural communities. New efforts are needed to develop rural planning techniques which effectively consider rural planning issues. These efforts must include the full participation and understanding of local elected officials and citizens to be effective.

Urban planning techniques such as zoning are appropriate for cities of over 50,000 people, but for smaller cities, rural planning techniques should also be developed.[5] Rural planning techniques should be applied almost exclusively to communities under 10,000 people, but such rural planning techniques or processes are not well established.

As noted, however, zoning ordinances and comprehensive plan documents have been directly applied to rural communities. This rural application of urban planning techniques has reduced the effectiveness of planning and may in some cases reduce successful community development.

The growing body of literature on rural planning has several central themes. First, all rural planning needs to be completed within the context of the local resident values and knowledge of planning issues. This means increasing sensitivity to and participation of local residents in the planning process. Planning in this sense needs to focus on community education, helping local citizens become more informed and therefore better able to make effective decisions on land use and other planning issues.

A number of strategies exist which can bring about effective planning. New planners in rural areas should first get to know the people and issues in an area by listening to their concerns and understanding their problems.[6] They should then pick one issue or problem and solve it. Rural people are project-oriented, they want results from the work, not 'planning.'[7] Also, planning education is critical once these first two steps have been completed. This education should focus on the definitionof planning as a process within their community and on the importance of developing policies as part of effective planning.

The urban context for problem solving has dominated issues ranging from economics to recreation in the United States during the 1960s and 1970s. Few post-secondary institutions have concentrated upon rural community development and only the recent change in demographic patterns toward rural areas has renewed interest in small communities. One effort to link rural colleges and universities with the needs of rural

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[5]Sargent, p. 10.

[6]Getzels and Thurrow, pp. 2-17.

[7]Getzels and Thurrow, p. 10.

communities demonstrates the potential of curriculum and applied community research which places an emphasis upon rural communities.[8] Such efforts will certainly be expanded as the demand for appropriate planning and development guidelines for rural communities becomes stronger.

VI. Rural Planning Problems and Opportunities

The problem of rural planning can in part be traced to a dislike of planning and to the inappropriate application of urban planning techniques to rural communities and counties. Efforts to decentralize planning efforts through the establishment of Regional Planning Agencies to serve rural regions have been only partially successful. For the most part these agencies remain unable to establish a process of effective rural community development. At the same time, efforts to reindustrialize many counties have often been quite successful. Such development has led to conflicts between local values, the rights of individuals to develop, and efforts of planners to control everything.

The outcome of land use trends in rural Georgia, for example, has been termed "a land speculation spiral that is economically ruinous to all but a few speculators. . ."[9] Efforts to increase effective planning and establish more land use controls are needed, but are highly unlikely. The need for more planning to serve the public interest opposes the expressed attitudes of the public, which seem to support the premise that the "best" government is the "least" government. Although the 1980s is a critical era in terms of rural land use and community development, there is clearly no movement toward "solutions from the top" such as the National Planning Act proposed during the 1970s or state legislation to expand municipal powers in planning, zoning and land-use restrictions.

A new local initiative which creates and promotes rural planning for non-metropolitan regions is needed. One such system has already been suggested in a proposal for two types of zoning in rural areas: one for county seats, communities and roadways which would have some zoning regulations; and a second agricultural zone for the remaining land, with only minimal development regulations.[10] Such an approach would bring

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[8] *Rural Development and Higher Education: The Linking of Community and Method* (Battle Creek, Michigan: The W. K. Kellogg Foundation, 1981).

[9] Eugene Odum, *"Optimum Population and Environment: A Georgian Microcosm,"* in Geography and Contemporary Issues: Studies of Relevant Problems, ed. Melvin Albaum (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1973) pp. 454-460.

[10] Howard Shretter, *Zoning and Countryside: What's Wrong With It and An Alternative Approach* (Athens: Institute of Community and Area Development, Dept. of Geography, Univ. of Georgia, 1977).

"flexibility and workability to the control of rural land use without sacrificing the purposes of integrity of the planning processes."[11]

Another alternative is to adopt a policy planning review process. Instead of developing extensive regulations or comprehensive planning documents, such a process would apply a comprehensive policy planning or issue-analysis study for each proposed development. This would provide a comprehensive examination of the issues and impacts of proposals, while supplying direct results in the form of technical input to decision-makers.

Policy planning could establish local staff members with expertise to study a wide range of issues using scientific techniques, presenting this information in a framework addressing specific issues or problems faced by local government. Policy planners could help elected leaders make more informed decisions while serving as a data collection center for information about the city.

In addition to this public sector role, policy planners could also expand their role in private sector development within rural areas. Most city governments already support the local Chamber of Commerce organizations and provide information which is used to promote development. Government administrators often fail to involve planners in these processes even though policy planners may be well trained in economic development. In many federal programs, including HUD's Community Development Block Grant programs and Economic Development Administration programs, planners not only collect base data and conduct feasibility studies for business proposals, but actually package such proposals for lenders. In many rural areas small businessmen lack the skill, time, and financing to examine thoroughly business feasibility and potential. Policy planners could assist in identifying regions within rural communities in which development can be promoted, and in assisting private enterprise to create more effective development within the private sector.

VII. Conclusions

Rural regions of the country face critical development porblems in the future. Zoning regulations and comprehensive planning reports have provided little useful service to stimulate the local economy and enhance community development. There is a need for new techniques which enhance local values and which can directly and appropriately deal with local issues. Planning can be an effective tool to promote the positive relationship between local government and private development only by redefining its role within rural communities. New approaches to rural

[11]Shrefler, p. 31.

zoning and implementing a policy planning process are two ways to enhance local values in the day-to-day issues which face local governments.

Planning in rural areas can no longer simply establish more land use regulations or meaningless reports. New efforts are needed by planners, businessmen, elected officials and local residents to form a partnership for community development. Planning within this context must be broad-based yet practical, assembling data in a comprehensive manner which directly relates to local problems. Community values and planning education must be emphasized. If its role in rural communities is changed, rural planning can contribute valuable techniques to aid local governments. Whether an effective partnership will form between planning and rural communities is a critical challenge for the future which will determine the success of rural planning and the positive development of rural communities.

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WHAT IS PHENOMENOLOGICAL PSYCHOLOGY?

*by Christopher M. Aanstoos, Ph.D**

A paradigmatic change is now occurring at the forward edge of psychology. This change involves the incorporation of phenomenology into the foundations of psychological theory and praxis. The wider academic community is only beginning to understand the significance of this shift.[1] The relative recency of these changes partially accounts for this unfamiliarity. However, it is also the essence of "state of the art" changes in any discipline to be some distance from that discipline's traditional mainstream. Such a gap is not a deficiency; it simply reveals the need for an overview perspective. The purpose of this article is to fill that need by introducing phenomenological psychology to those not well versed in it.

The place of phenomenological psychology

Perhaps the most succinct introduction possible is the maxim formulated by Husserl,[2] the founder of phenomenology: "To the things themselves!" This expression indicates phenomenology's aim to describe and understand phenomena on their own terms rather than to seek explanation by going "behind" phenomena through the use of hypothetical constructs about them. Applied to psychology, such a project proposes to understand psychological experience as it is actually lived by the person. In other words, phenomenology aims to grasp the *meaning* of the experience in order to understand human presence as it is lived.

At first glance, this goal seems so obvious it is surprising to find it at the forefront of contemporary psychology. Hasn't psychology always wanted to understand the meaningfulness of human experience? Implicity it has, but explicitly it founded itself within a conceptual and methodological approach that precluded it from doing so. Psychology forfeited the possibility of studying human meaning as the price of its commitment to imitate the model of the physical, or natural, sciences. Upon self-consciously separating from philosophy in the nineteenth century, psychology chose the conceptual foundations of the sciences of nature. It sought to establish itself as a "physics of the mind" or a "mental chemistry," without realizing that the uniqueness of the human, or social, sciences required their own original foundation.

The history of psychology credits Wundt's experimental laboratory of

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[1]The four Psychology Departments most notable for their work in this area include Duquesne University, Seattle University, the University of Dallas and West Georgia College. All four have Master's programs. At this time only Duquesne and Dallas have doctoral programs.

[2]Husserl, Edmund. *Ideas: General Introduction to pure Phenomenology*, translated by W. R. B. Gibson (London: Collier, 1962. Originally published, 1913).

1879 as having spawned psychology's institutionalization of experimental, natural science methodology. A deeper historical analysis, however, demonstrates that this approach was not the only alternative available to psychology. Comtemporaneously with Wundt, Brentano[3] argued that psychology could better approach its own subject matter if it was a descriptive, rather than experimental, science. Shortly afterwards, Dilthey[4] distinguished the human sciences (those whose focus is the human world) from the natural sciences (those whose focus is the world of nature). This distinction was not meant to indicate that there are two worlds. Rather, it distinguished the study of the world as it is lived from the study of the world conceived independently of human presence. Dilthey pointed out a fundamental difference between the experienced world and the world conceived as an object independent of experience. The former, precisely because it is lived, presents itself as a constellation, or network, of meaning – that is, as a structure to be understood and described as such. The latter, on the other hand, does not. Lacking such an intrinsic nexus of significance, this objectified world can be comprehended only by establishing extrinsic, causal relations among its parts. This establishment of such extrinsic relations is thus the proper task of the natural sciences, but not of psychology as a human science.

But psychology in the late nineteenth century did not follow the lead proposed by Brentano and Dilthey. It chose to ignore their essential distinction and instead conceptualized its subject matter naturalistically, in order to proceed as an experimentally based positivistic science. Human behavior was taken to be just as mechanistic and causally determined as the actions of molecules or machines, and those aspects of it that did not conform to this model were ruled "out of bounds" and ignored as not scientific, or worse, as not real. Such an approach is not unlike that of King Procrustes in Greek mythology, who fit his guests to his bed by cutting off their feet if they were too long or by stretching them if they were too short. Psychology made the same mistake by forcing its subject matter to conform to a pre-existing methodology rather than inventing methods adequate to its subject matter. In that way, psychology thwarted itself and so excluded the very possibility of being able to fulfill its own originary purpose.

The current change in psychology is the re-awakening of this unfulfilled purpose, and a re-dedication to its achievement. Its precursors were phenomenlogy and existentialism in postwar Europe and humanistic

[3]Brentano, Franz. *Psychology from an empirical Standpoint*, translated by A. C. Rancurello, D. B. Terrell & L. L. McAlister (London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1973. Originally published, 1874).

[4]Dilthey, Wilhelm. *Descriptive Psychology and historical Understanding*, translated by R. M. Zaner & K. L. Heiges (The Hague: Nijhoff, 1977. Originally published, 1894).

psychology in the United States. In this country, the first reformist wave was more a protest than a program. In their dispute with traditional psychology, humanistic psychologists took one or the other of two paths. Some sought to add meaning back into psychology's agenda by bringing the same research methods to bear on neglected topics in psychology (such as love). Others rejected a scientific framework altogether and sought to re-establish psychology apart from science. While these early efforts were important in provoking later developments, they could not by themselves solve the root of psychology's problem. Those who took the first path failed to grasp the earlier stated point of the power of an inappropriate method to dictate to the phenomenon, thereby limiting the way it can be disclosed. For example, researchers who accumulate statistical correlations of operationally defined variables about love remain just as blind to the meaning of the experience as did those who used the same methods to study rote learning. Psychology's problem is more basic than a simple neglect of certain content areas. Rather, the approach itself is problematic. However, those psychologists who reject science altogether are no better off. The anti-intellectualism of the "touchy-feely" branch of humanistic psychology also fails to achieve a rigorously sound understanding of the human world. Although this understanding cannot be attained on the basis of the natural science foundation, it also cannot be achieved by completely abandoning science. Then one's results would so lack rigor that they could be nothing more than conjecture and dogmatic assertion.

As humanistic psychology has matured, it has increasingly begun to turn to phenomenology for a solution to this dilemma. Thus, in the last two decades, an authentically phenomenological psychology has emerged. In addition to a journal begun in 1970 *(Journal of Phenomenological Psychology)* and a professional organization begun in 1982 (Human Science Research Association), a wide variety of texts on phenomenological psychology are now available. These include introductory books,[5] programmatic works,[6] collections of research,[7] and histories.[8]

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[5]Two examples are: Valle, Ron & King, Mark. *Existential-phenomenological Alternatives for Psychology* (New York: Oxford, 1978); and Kruger, Dreyer. *An Introduction to Phenomenological Psychology* (Pittsburgh: Duquesne University Press, 1979).

[6]Two examples are: Van Kaam, Adrian. *Existential Foundations of Psychology* (New York: Doubleday, 1966); and Giorgi, Amedeo. *Psychology as a Human Science* (New York: Harper & Row, 1970).

[7]An example is the series entitled *Duquesne Studies in Phenomenological Psychology*, a volume of which has been published every four years beginning in 1971.

[8]An example is: Misiak, Henryk & Sexton, Virginia S. *Phenomenological, Existential and Humanistic Psychologies: A historical Survey* (New York: Grune & Stratton, 1973).

In the remaining section of this article, only the barest outline can be presented. It will focus on two important issues: the articulation of psychological reality, and methodological procedures for empirical research.

The task of phenomenological psychology

For phenomenological psychology, the fundamental psychological reality is human being-in-the-world, a term indicative of an essential relation of person and world. "Comportment," "experience," "expression," "action," "behavior," "consciousness"—these are all different names for this relation. Likewise, all the usual processes that psychology studies—perception, memory, learning, thinking, emotion, motivation—are specific modes by which people relate to the world. Phenomenology's most basic discovery is that this relation is lived as an intentional unity, a correlation of experiencer-experienced. Thus, psychologically speaking, a person is always "in relation to" or "directed toward" or "intending" something. Furthermore, by virtue of this intentional unity, that toward which the person is directed coheres, that is, it presents itself to experience as always already meaningful in some way.

Methodologically, then, the research task of the phenomenological psychologist is to study that meaningful coherence of experience as it is lived. To do so, it must be attended to on its own terms (which was precisely the sense of Husserl's maxim "to the things themselves"). As has already been said, psychology traditionally conceived of its subject matter naturalistically. Along those lines, it viewed the subject's world as a random heap of extrinsic, impinging stimuli, to which sense was subsequently somehow added by the person. But these are terms borrowed from the physical sciences; they are not the terms by which the world is ordinarily lived by people in their everyday experience. Psychologists *can* view the world in that way, but when such a theoretically derived viewpoint is posited as that lived by the subject, then a "category error" has been committed. The researcher's *conception* of the world has been put in the place of the subject's *living* of it. The world is not lived as something foreign to the person, but as a situation carved out by one's involvements. Perhaps a specific example would help clarify this point. Cognitive psychology has now constructed computer models of thought and has applied these models to areas that require thinking—such as chess. The program of such a computer chess player is then taken as a simulation of human thought. The computer proceeds by applying pre-determined heuristic search and evaluation rules.[9] But to mistake this conception of

[9]For a more complete critique of this model and the results of phenomenological research in this area, see: Aanstoos, Christopher M. *A Phenomenological Study of Thinking as It Is Exemplified during Chess Playing* (Ann Arbor: University Microfilms, 1983).

how chess *can* be played for an understanding of how people actually *do* think in chess is to commit the aforementioned category error, substituting the researcher's knowledge for the subject's experience.[9]

And how does phenomenology avoid this error? First by respecting the contextualized, or situated, character of experience. Phenomenological studies generally aim to discover the significance of any psychological phenomenon by studying its occurrence in actual, everyday experience. For example, if one's research interest was perceptual thematization, then it would be more illuminating to study it in the context of the subject's picking out groceries in a supermarket[10] than it would be to have the subject detect randomly generated dots on an electronic screen in a laboratory. Meaning inheres in situations; stripping away the context is like throwing out the baby with the bath water. Second, phenomenological research remains faithful to experience by proceeding descriptively. It begins by obtaining naive descriptions from subjects. The data-generating questions are open-ended, designed to allow subjects to "tell their story" about specific situations in which they actually experienced the topic in question.

Nor is this descriptive emphasis compromised by the imposition of hypothetical constructs at a later step. Rather, the researcher's aim is to reflectively determine and explicate the essential structure of the experience. That is achieved by making explicit the meaningful coherence that may have been lived only prethematically, and hence described only implicitly by the subject. In that way, phenomenological research is not caught by the same dilemmas that plagued introspectionism. It does not require that subjects grasp the essential structure of their experience, only that they describe their experience as they lived it. It is properly the task of the researcher to make this structure explicit. There are already well established procedures for teasing out that which is essentially invariant in subjects' descriptions.[11] What is sought are not merely invariant facts, but instead the invariant structure within which the individual contingencies cohere. By analogy, one may picture the grasp of this

[10]Wertz, Frederick J. *A Dialog with the New Look: A historical Critique and a descriptive Approach to everyday perceptual Process* (Ann Arbor: University Microfilms, 1982).

[11]Articles and books specifying methodological procedures include the following: Colaizzi, Paul F. *Reflection and Research in Psychology* (Dubuque: Kendall Hunt, 1973); Giorgi, Amedeo. "Toward phenomenologically based Research in Psychology," *Journal of Phenomenological Psychology*, Fall 1970, pp. 75-98; Giorgi, Amedeo. "An Application of phenomenological Method in Psychology" in *Duquesne Studies of Phenomenological Psychology Vol. II*, edited by Amedeo Giorgi, Constance Fischer & Edward Murray (Pittsburgh: Duquesne University Press, 1975); Wertz, Frederick. "From everyday to psychological Description: An Analysis of the Elements of a qualitative Data Analysis," *Journal of Phenomenological Psychology*, Fall 1983, in press.

structural invariance to be similar to the way that a *theme* in music is grasped as that which is common to all its *variations*. The final step is to provide a structural description of the essential psychological significance of the experience. And therein lies the true value of phenomenological psychology. It returns, as its gift back to the lived world, an explicit understanding of that which lies closest to human being: the meaningful coherence of experience.

WHO WAS JOHN H. GREGORY?

*by Carole E. Scott**

There was a time when saying a person was from Auraria, Georgia, was like saying today he has a degree from the Colorado School of Mines. Because Georgia was the site of the nation's first gold rush, our first gold mining experts were Georgians. Thus, early gold seekers in the West looked to Georgians for expertise and leadership.

Georgians generally followed one of two major routes to the gold country of the West. If headed for California, they usually made their way to New Orleans, from where they sailed to the isthmus of Panama, crossed this jungle hell, and set sail again. Colorado and other mining areas in the eastern Rockies were reached by trekking across the hostile Indian-infested Great Plains. Many of these miners were unwilling to give up their homes in Georgia, so they spent only the mining season—the warmer months—in the West. Others, who were Cherokee Indians, were forced to give up their homes in Georgia.

Georgians found both the first placer or drift and lode gold in Colorado. (Placer gold is gold found in streams which has been washed out of lodes in the mountains.) Both Denver, Colorado, and Helena, Montana, trace their beginnings to settlements started by Georgians. Traces of these early Georgia miners can be found today on detailed maps of the Rockies. Over a hundred years ago, however, the imprint of Georgia on Colorado was far greater.

Named after John Hamilton Gregory, a Georgia miner, were a point, a gulch, a street, a district, a hill, a creek, a canon, a hotel, three lodes, a diggings, and two mining companies. Gregory was king of the little kingdom of Gilpin, home of Central City—the richest square mile on Earth.[1] Today, due to the passage of time, the Civil War, and Gregory's dropping from sight at the height of his power, John H. Gregory has been almost forgotten.

His memory lingers on, however, because he discovered the first lode gold found in the Pike's Peak Country and set off the Colorado gold rush. During the winter of 1859, Gregory prospected the icy, forbidding Rockies. He paid dearly for his decision to prospect during this season for

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[1]Margaret Inman Meaders, "The Perplexing Case of John H. Gregory," *Georgia Historical Quarterly*, Vol. XI, June 1956, p. 112.

he almost lost his life in a snow storm.[2] But the gamble paid off, for on May 6, 1859, Gregory discovered the gold lode he had tentatively located during the winter.

Earlier, another Georgian, William Greenberry (Green) Russell, had discovered the first placer gold in Colorado. Green went home for the winter of 1859, leaving his brother, Dr. Levi J. Russell, a physician known as the founder of Denver, in the raw and rough town they had founded: Auraria, Colorado. (Auraria was later absorbed by upstart Denver.)

A good bit is known about Green Russell and his brothers, Levi and Oliver, who mined with him, first in California and then in Colorado. The son of a man who left Pennsylvania to seek gold in South Carolina and then in Georgia, Green was just old enough to witness the gold rush in Georgia. As a youth, he helped his father mine gold in Georgia. He dreamed of growing up and making a fortune as a miner.

As a teenager, Green was one of the soldiers who rounded up the Cherokees for eviction from Georgia. This experience made him sympathetic to Indians. Later he was to marry a woman who was part Cherokee and, on the basis of Cherokee reports of gold in the Rockies, was to travel with a group partly made up of Cherokees and half-breeds to Colorado to search for gold.

Green was one of the first Georgians to head for California. He made several successful trips, taking some of his brothers with him. He invested his earnings in a Georgia plantation and farm land in Kansas. Their travels aren't the only thing that makes the Russells interesting. They also differed from the bulk of their peers by belonging to the Universalist Church in Dawson. The Russell men were known as free thinkers who did not subscribe to the conventional, dogmatic teachings of most of the local sects. They did not accept the fire-and-brimstone hell threatened by most frontier preachers of the day. In Texas, where he moved after the Civil War, Levi, out on a fake call, was beaten up for being a free thinker.[3]

Unlike Green Russell, John H. Gregory is a man of mystery. There is no known photograph of Gregory and only sketchy descriptions of him by some of those who met him. According to one Georgian who tried to track him down, as far as his history prior to his years in Colorado or his later life is concerned, "he might very well have ridden into the Territory on the tail of Donati's comet in 1858 and ridden out again on the caboose of the Great Comet of 1864, for these years more than cover the certified record of the

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[2]Carl Ubbelohde, Maxine Benson, Duane A. Smith, *A Colorado History* (Boulder, Col.: Pruett Publishing Co., 1972), p. 64.

[3]Elma Dill Russell Spencer, *Green Russell and Gold* (Austin: The University of Texas, 1966).

man."[4] What he did before he went to Colorado (except begin a Georgia miner) and where he went to after he left is a mystery.

His record in Colorado indicated that experience and shrewdness, rather than luck, mainly accounted for his success. Decriptions of his as "white trash" seem a bit prejudiced.[5] In Gregory's day the *Rocky Mountain News* reported that he was from Gordon County, Georgia.[6] Some claim he was born in Alabama, while others say it was in Georgia.[7] He was literate, something many people in his day were not. On October 2, 1860, he signed an agreement selling his interest in the Bates lode. A Colorado historian says his signature "is a large, dashing hand with the tail of the 'y' extending over two and a half inches."[8] The editor of the *Rocky Mountain News* is said to have been impressed with a business-like statement Gregory wrote out as a contract with his hired men.[9]

Although the *Omaha Nebraskian* reported on October, 17, 1860[10], that Gregory has passed through on his way to Georgia, the *Rocky Mountain News* reported on April 3, 1861, that "We had the pleasure of again taking by the hand our old frienc John H. Gregory, the discoverer of the Gregory mines. He has just returned from his home in Alabama to spend another season in our mines."[11]

It has been said that he was forty years old in 1859.[12] In Colorado he feuded with Green Russell, and it has been said that their conflict dated back to their days in Georgia.[13] Yet, Dr. Levi Russell put Gregory up for the night before there were any Colorado conflicts between Gregory and Green Russell.[14]

Colorado histories say that all the Russells and Gregory were from Auraria, Georgia, site of the nation's first gold rush. Yet, while the Russells did live for awhile in Lumpkin County, the county in which Auraria was located, they never lived in Auraria.[15] At the time they discovered gold in Colorado, Green resided on his plantation in Dawson County, which had

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[4]Meeders, *Op. Cit.*, p. 113.

[5]Robert L. Perkin, *The First Hundred Years, An Informal History of Denver and the Rocky Mountain News* (New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1959), p. 109.

[6]Caroline Bancroft, "The Elusive Figure of John H. Gregory, Discoverer of the First Gold Lode in Colorado," The Colorado Magazine, Vol. XX, No. 4, July 1943, p. 125.

[7]Meaders, *Op. Cit.*, p. 120.

[8]Bancroft, *Op. Cit.*, p. 131.

[9]Caroline Bancroft, *Gulch of Gold* (Denver: Sage Books, d1958), p. 38.

[10]Bancroft, Op. Cit. (*The Colorado Magazine*), p. 131.

[11]Ibid.

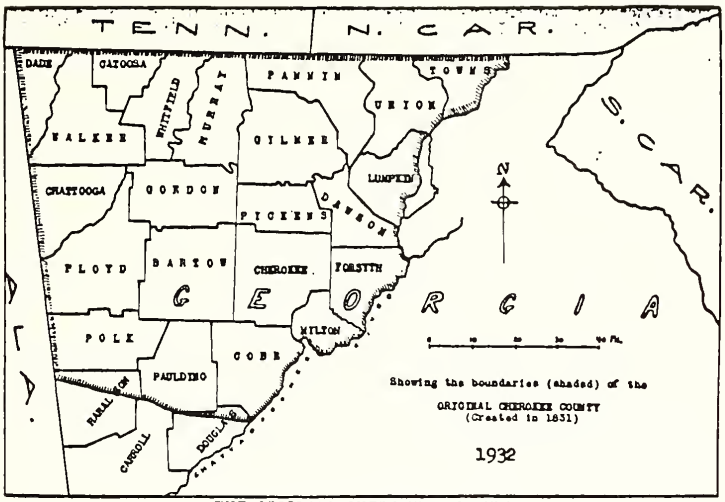
[12]Meaders, *Op. Cit.*, p. 123.

[13]Bancroft, Op. Cit., *(Gulch of Gold)*, p. 124.

[14]Spencer, *Op. Cit.*p. 110.

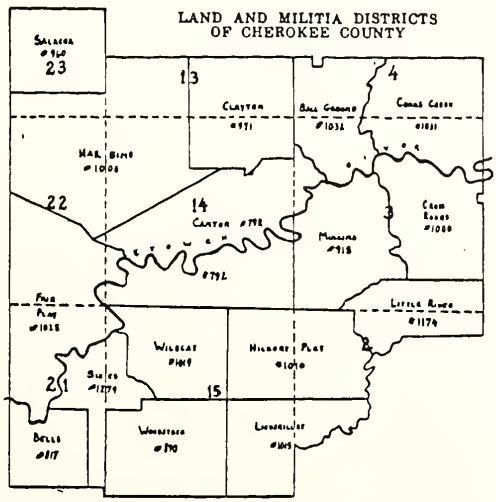
[15]Ibid., p. 7 and p. 37.

Figure 1



THE ORIGINAL CHEROKEE COUNTY

Figure 2



been created partly out of Lumpkin.[16] (See Figure 1.) It was Levi who suggested Auraria as the name for the first settlement in Colorado. His other suggestion, Dahlonega, is the name of the Georgia town where the U.S. Mint was located that, using gold brought it by Green, coined the first Colorado gold.[17]

Presumably, the Russells and, perhaps, Gregory did what many people do today when they are far from home. They say they are from the nearest town to where they live that the people they are among are familiar with. Someone from Gordon County interested in selling his services as a gold miner would be very tempted to say he was from Auraria. Then, too, people in Colorado might just assume any miner from Georgia was from Auraria. They might not know that gold was mined in many north Georgia counties.

When one examines the 1850 Census of Lumpkin County there is a strong temptation to conclude that John Gregory was actually from Auraria, for the Census shows a John (no middle initial or name) Gregory, 36, and his wife, Martha, 39, living in the Auraria District with their six children.

This John Gregory is not shown in the 1860 Census of Lumpkin County, but Martha, 48, is, along with four of the six children listed in 1850. A new, seventh shild, Jesse, is also shown. In the 1860 Census, Martha's real estate was valued at $100, not much even then. Thus, there is no sign of the thousands of dollars John is reported to have sent his wife from Colorado.[18]

The 1870 Census of Auraria District shows Martha, 58, but fails to show John. Since Colorado's John is said to have shouted when he found his lode, "By God, now by wife can be a lady! My children can be schooled,"[19] he doesn't seem like the type to desert his family. Since John would have been 56 in 1870, it seems unlikely he would have been out prospecting and, thus, not been at home when the census taker came by. Even if he had been, it would appear that he'd still be listed.

The 1880 Census, which indicates a woman's status, shows that Martha, 68, is a widow. The 1880 Census includes a man named Jesse Gregory, who age indicates he is John and Martha's son, living nearby with his wife and son, James, 1. James is probably the James Gregory contacted in 1937 by the Colorado Historical Society, which thought that his grandfather John might be Colorado's John.[20]

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[16]Ibid., and U.S. Census.

[17]Ibid., p. 77

[18]Bandcroft, *Op. Cit. (Gulch of Gold)*

[19]Perkin, *Op. Cit.*, p. 110

[20]Meaders, *Op. Cit.*, pp. 121-122.

Confederate records show that a George W. Gregory, private, Co. H, 1st Regiment, Georgia Volunteer Infantry (Dahlonega Vols), Lumpkin County, was killed in Winchester, Virginia. The Census of 1850 shows that John and Martha Gregory had a son named George old enough to have served in the Confederate Army. A Gregory family Bible obtained from James Gregory in 1937 by the Colorado Historical Society records the death of John's son George in Winchester, Virginia.[21] Thus, the John discovered by the Colorado group must be the John recorded in the Census.

Three facts about this John Gregory seem to rule him out as the Colorado John. The Bible records his death on his way home from California in 1853.[22] It also indicates that he would have been 45 in 1859[23] (This is yet another reason for believing he is the John listed in the 1850 Census.) Thus, this John is five years older than the John in Colorado was thought to be. Letters obtained along with the Bible suggests that this John could not write, since someone else wrote his letters for him.[24]

The fact that Jesse Gregory, the youngest child of John and Martha, was born in either 1851 or 1852 is consistent with John having died in 1853.

Despite these conflicts, Margaret Inman Meaders, who grew up in the gold region of Georgia and researched the John Gregory mystery, concluded in a 1956 article in the *Georgia Historical Quarterly* that Auraria's John was Colorado's. She thought the report of his death might be wrong. She believed that since the family kept John's letters from California that they would also keep the one announcing his death, but no such letter was found. She also reported that a man who remembered Mrs. Gregory also remembered that his grandmother had told Mrs. Gregory of her husband's death after 1853.[25]

While the name Gregory cannot be called a common name in Goergia in the 1800's, there were a number of people named Gregory in the State, and several were named John. The mountain region alone had more than one John, but there was only one John H. Gregory listed in the 1850 Census of Georgia. This John Gregory fits the known facts about Colorado's John Gregory better than does the Meaders' candidate.

The 1850 Census of Cherokee County (See Figure 1.) shows a John H. Gregory, 29, living with his wife, Christina, 25, and two children: Frances, 1, and Sis, 5 days. He was born in South Carolina; thus, in time and place

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[21]Ibid., p. 124.

[22]Ibid., p. 122.

[23]Ibid., p. 123

[24]Ibid., p. 125.

[25]Ibid., p. 127.

he was Green's contemporary, as Green was born there at about the same time. The value of his property was listed as $1,500. This data was collected on the 10th of August 1850; thus, this John would have been just one year short of 40 in 1859. Living nearby was a possible brother, William H. Gregory, 24, and his wife Emily, 17. Marriage records show that John married Christina Payne November 11, 1844, in Cherokee County. They show that William married Emily Waddell on January 2, 1848, in that county. An older man, Griffin Gregory is also shown in Cherokee County in 1850.

Neither John H. nor his wife appear in the 1860 Census of either Cherokee or Gordon County. The same is true of William H. Since there is no index of the 1860 Census, it is not possible to determine if these people lived somewhere else in Georgia or Alabama in 1860.

A Robert Gregory, 70, and his wife, Cynthia, 67, both born in North Carolina, appear in the Resaca District of Gordon County in 1860. (Many people their age living in Georgia at that time had emigrated from North Carolina, often via South Carolina.) Could these be the parents of the John H. in the Wildcat District of Cherokee County ten years earlier?

Could John H. Gregory be related to the Lewis Gregory who obtained land in the Cherokee Land Lottery of 1832 which was located in what was to become Gordon County?[26]

As can be seen in Figure 1, Dawson, Gordon, and Lumpkin counties were all carved out of the original Cherokee County. Lumpkin was one of the original counties carved out of Cherokee. Dawson and Gordon were not. Since Gordon County was not created until February 13, 1850, the best John H. could have done was to have been born in what became Gordon County. However, this is highly unlikely, as the northwestern part of Georgia was not settled until 1835, and he was born in 1820 or 1821. People his age born in Georgia were a real rarity in this part of Georgia in 1850. Most were born in South or North Carolina.

Figure 2 shows Cherokee County in 1932. Although its boundaries encompassed more territory in 1850, the 15th land district that John H. lived in had not changed. (Wildcat is the name of a militia district.)

It appears that at least one adult member of the Russell clan can be placed in Cherokee County in 1860. Elma Dill Russell Spencer, granddaughter of Joseph Oliver Russell, reports that Oliver married Jane Robertson, who was born in 1838. Their first child, Harriet, was born in 1856, and the second, her father, Richard, was born in 1858.[27] A Jane

[26]Burton J. Bell (editor), *1976 Bicentennial History of Gordon County Georgia* (Calhoun, Georgia: The Gordon Co. Historical Society, Inc., 1976), p. 40.

[27]Spencer, *Op. Cit.*, Appendix.

Russell, 21, and her two children, Hariett (sic), 3, and Richard, 2, are shown in the 1860 Census of Cherokee County in the Ball Ground District. (See Figure 2.) Mrs. Spencer implies, however, that in 1860 Jane and her children lived on Green Russell's Plantation in the Savannah District, Dawson County. She seems to be mistaken in this view.

This section of Georgia was thinly populated in John's day. Gordon County, for example, had only 5,984 people (828 Black) in 1850 and 10,146 in 1860.[28] Cherokee County had 12,800 in 1850 and 11,291 in 1860.[29] Thus, it does not appear too unlikely that John's path could have crossed a Russell's in Georgia.

Because John is reported to have drafted many agreements himself, it seems likely that he had previous experience with legal documents. Thus somewhere in Georgia today there may be a document signed by the elusive John H. Gregory.

Perhaps the most conclusive evidence that the John H. Gregory living in Cherokee County in 1850 was Colorado's Gregory lies in the person of Robert Reese, who lived nearby in Cherokee County in 1850. A Robert Reese married Emily Gregory December 19, 1844, in Cherokee County. E is the initial of the wife of the Robert Reese living near John H. Gregory. Colorado's John had a partner in a quartz mill on North Clear Creek named R. T. Reese.[30]

Some seekers of Gregory find his sudden and unexpected disappearance from Colorado mysterious. A Colorado historian considers his debts a possible motive, but she also notes that he left substantial assets and an unsettled suit against Green Russell.[31] A more likely answer is that he was a Southerner in a Unionist territory during the, as he would have called it, War Between the States, and he was afraid to stay.

As the Colorado historian Bancroft observes, "The Georgia miners, whose prestige had always been the highest because of their knowledge of gold, were shunned more and more, and Gregory and Russell were no longer venerated. Southerners, fearing attack, remained close to their claims and worked quietly or began to slip away from the mountatin towns, unannounced."[32]

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[28]Bell, *Op. Cit.*, p. 73.

[29]Lloyd G. Marlin, *The History of Cherokee County (Atlanta: Walter E. Brown Publishing Co., 1932), p. 181.*

[30]*Bancroft, Op. Cit. (Gulch of Gold)*, p. 55 and Meaders, *Op. Cit.*, p. 125 (Meaders says it was R. T. or R. J.).

[31]Bancroft, *Ibid.*, pp. 136-138.

[32]Ibid., p. 120

Spencer says that "Southerners were persecuted and taunted. Frequently their property was threatened with damage. . . . Several times the Russells found that their water flumes had been cut at night. . . ."[33] They decided to get away in the "guise of prospectors, heading toward the mountains for Georgia Bar, where some recent gold activity had been going on."[34] They didn't make it. Union soldiers captured them on the Canadian River.[35] Ultimately they were released because they agreed to take an oath of allegiance to the United States.[36] Green and Oliver, however, didn't let this stop them from forming a company of Confederate troops when they finally got back home.[37] Ironically, one of the problems they faced when they got home was that northwest Georgia was a center of Unionist sentiment!

After the War, the three Russell brothers and a fourth brother, John, who had gone to California, but not to Colorado, moved west, as did many other Southerners discouraged by post war conditions. Only Green returned to Colorado. He died in Indian Territory, having moved there to live with his brother John.[38]

Did John H. Gregory, as some have suggested, go to Montana, or did he, like the Russells, return to Georgia? Culd he be the John Gregory who enlisted on September 18, 1863, at Dahlonega, Georgia, in a calvary unit organized for local defense? We may never know, as the tides of time have washed away most traces of that "slight, wiry red-haired and full-whiskered Georgian."[39]

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[33]Spencer, *3Op. Cit.*, p. 158.

[34]Ibid., p. 159.

[35]Ibid., p. 169.

[36]Ibid., p. 175.

[37]Ibid., p. 182.

[38]Ibid., pp. 199-206.

[39]Henry Villard, quoted in Bancroft, *Op. Cit. (The Colorado Magazine), p. 122.*

WHAT KIND OF LEADER WAS GEORGE WASHINGTON?

*by Frank R. Hunsicker**

Introduction

If we measure the success of a leader by his accomplishments, the leadership success of George Washington is obvious to all but the more cynical. It is time we began to analyze leaders that history suggests as being successful and try to identify the factors which contributed to their success.

For this inaugural effort, George Washington was selected because of his reputation. It is an initial effort to analyze the leadership ability of Washington in a rigorous fashion. It is a developmental attempt to identify techniques that will help analyze other successful leaders. This could be classified as an attempt to formalize histro-leadership analysis. Obviously, people have tried to analyze George Washington from many perspectives. No less an authority than Leonard White analyzed his administrative ability.[1] Most efforts, although quite perceptive, did not use current concepts of leadership as a basis for analysis. Most studies are more descriptive than analytical. This study is hopefully an analytical approach to the leadership of George Washington.

Methodology

It is quite difficult to analyze the abilities of a person who has been deceased for over 180 years. We cannot administer tests to him, his peers, or his subordinates. Therefore, more abstract processes must be used. Opinions need to be sifted and balanced to ascertain characteristics. George Washington, himself, is of very little help, since his diaries are rather sterile statements of fact[2] and Martha destroyed most of their personal correspondence.[3] We have little of his own thoughts; therefore we must rely on opinions of others. This problem is compounded by some fantasized stories about "cherry trees" and "silver dollars," which mask the real George Washington.[4]

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[1]White, Leonard D. *The Federalists: A Study of Administrative History*, New York: MacMillan (1965), pp. 97-115.

[2]Jackson, Donald (Editor). *The Diaries of George Washington*, University of Virginia, Vol. I-VI (1978-1979).

[3]Fitzpatrick, John C. *The Writings of George Washington*, Vol. 1, Washington, D.C. (1931), p. XIX as reported in Flexner, J.T. *George Washington: The Forge of Experience*, Little-Brown: Boston, Mass (1965), p. 230.

[4]Boorstin, J. "The Mythologizing of George Washington," *The Americas: The National Experience*, Random House, Inc. (1965).

[5]Stogdill, Ralph M. *Handbook of Leadership*, MacMillan Publishing Co. (1974), p. 426.

The model by Ralph Stogdill was used as a basic structure for this analysis.[5] Leader, follower, group variables, and criterion measures are suggested as components of this model. The structure of the model tends to emphasize internal variables which might affect the leader's success and ignore external factors. Although the framework is crude and the variables must be limited for this initial effort, the possibility for future applications is intriguing.

The analysis focused on George Washington's development through the Revolution to about 1783. This excluded the latter period when he played a role in the Presidency. His abilities as a leader were primarily developed during the period researched. As stipulated in the opening sentences of this paper, it is assumed that he was successful as a leader because of results. In this effort, focus will be to analyze primarily (1) the characteristics of George Washington (GW), the individual, (2) briefly address characteristics of his followers, primarily military, and (3) group characteristics.

Findings

Characteristics of George Washington

Several leader characteristic areas were analyzed in the quest for understanding the development of George Washington's leadership ability. They are discussed separately.

Background. George Washington was born into a rather austere environment in the tidelands of Virginia, to the descendents of English immigrants. His mother was a rather domineering individual throughout much of his life. His education was limited, in comparison, to that of his peers. If one assumes three social and economic classifications in Virginia, he was born into the lower middle class and rose by his own achievements in surveying, military, and business, to the upper class. His brother, Lawrence, and the Fairfax family were his mentors.[6] There is general agreement among leadership analysts that he had a high achievement and power orientation.

Identifying Characteristics. His most identifiable characteristic was his size. In a time when people were averaging close to five feet, five inches, he stood out at over six feet, and probably close to six feet, four inches tall. He was athletic and quite strong. On one occasion, a soldier recalled, nearly one thousand of his troops were fighting among themselves when George walked into the eye of the fight and grabbed the two instigators by the necks, picked them up and shook them, while lecturing them on their

[6]Flexner, James Thomas. *George Washington: The Forge of Experience*, Little-Brown & Co. (1965).

behavior.[7] He often suffered, as did many in that period, from such illnesses as smallpox, dysentery, and lung-related sicknesses. As a result, he was often forced to lead from a sickbed. There is little to suggest an extremely high level of intellectual interest, but there is evidence that he was quite intelligent with a pragmatic sense of balance and a very high level of tenacity.[8] The tenacity factor demonstrated by the above instances recurred numerous times in his career.

Status. His status derived from his accomplishments. His family status, important in Virginia, was relatively low by comparison to families such as Lee, Carter, Randolph, and Fairfax. His accomplishments as a surveyor and in the Virginia military built his status. So, one might say that his status was self-made and earned.[9]

Personality. It is difficult to establish a realistic picture of his personality. He appears to have been quite personable and well-liked. He quickly earned the respect of such people as Governor Dinwiddie and General Braddock. From a leadership perspective, the repeated opinion that he was socially distant is a key factor. He appears to have had a few close relationships except with the Fairfax family.[10] He also appears to have kept his emotions under control, although he did have angry outbursts.[11]

Values. This is a most critical area in this analysis. Gurth and Taguiri's work, using Spranger's classifications and definitions of theoretical, economic, religious, political, aesthetic, and social values, was most helpful.[12] George Washington's value system and supporting evidence is profiled below in order of importance.

(1) **Political**—There is a slight difference in weight attached to economic and political values. George Washington placed a high value on power. This is cited by numerous biographers. In his younger days, he openly sought power. He actively sought a coveted commission in the regular English Army until he was 28. He was characterized as being "on the

[7]Dann, John C. (Editor). *The Revolution Remembers*, Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press (1980), p. 409.

[8]Woodward W.E. *George Washington: The Image and the Man*, New York: Liveright Publishing Co. (1926), p. 295.

[9]*Ibid.* pp. 59-206

[10]Fay, Bernard. *George Washington, Republican Aristocrat.* New York: Houghton-Mifflin Co. (1932), p. 11, 139.

[11]Flexner, Op. cit., p. 26-33.

[12]Gurth, William and Taguiri, Renato. "Personal Values and Corporate Strategy." *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 43, 45, (Sept.-Oct. 1965), pp. 123-132.

[13]Cunliffe, Marcus. *George Washington: Man and Monument.* London: James Place, (1959), p. 52.

make."[14] Others suggest that "he was vain, fond of adulation and power."[15] He was the only member of the Second Continental Convention to appear in uniform."[16] This was the convention that chose him as Commander of the Continental Army. Numerous other examples in the literature substantiate the findings that this was his most dominant value. Power dominated economic value. Given the choice on several occasions to stay or return to Mt. Vernon, his economic base, Washington opted for the positions of power.

(2) **Economic**—This value appeared to dominate some of his earlier activities. Washington was born and raised in austere economic circumstances. His first major efforts as a surveyor provided a good source of income and opportunity to buy land, vital to economic success. His early efforts in the military were primarily due to economic concerns for land development by the Ohio Company. This absorbed much of his interest from the age of 16 to 22.[17] One suggested that he was "economic and moralistic," while Thomas Jefferson was "intellectual and spiritual."[19] It appears this value affected decisions less as he achieved higher levels of tangible wealth. Most biographers agree that he faced most decisions by seeking practical and useful alternatives. That approach characterizes what management theory classifies as the economic value of orientation.

(3) **Theoretical**—There is a significant gap between the first two values and this one. According to most of the researchers, Washington was not an idealist or intellectual.[20] He was much less educated than his peers, having completed his education without attending American or European institutions of higher learning. Most would agree that he was intelligent, but not equal to such giants as Thomas Paine, Thomas Jefferson, or Benjamin Franklin. During a long tenure in the Virginia House of Burgesses, he was not active in political debate and primarily handled local affairs. Yet, George Washington was quite observant, rational and logical.[21]

(4) **Social**—Again, there is a gap between the theoretical and social values, but it is not as extensive as the previous gap. As mentioned earlier, Washington was socially distant.[22] One researcher characterized him by

[14] *Ibid.*, p. 53.

[15] Woodward, op. cit., p. 454.

[16] *Ibid, p. 258.*

[17] *Freeman, Douglas Southall. George Washington: Volume One, Young Washington,* New York: Scribner's Sons (1948), pp. 224-411.

[18] Woodward, op. cit., p. 218.

[19] *Ibid.*, p. 286.

[20] Cunliffe, p. 150-152.

[21] *Ibid.*, p. 150.

[22] *Ibid.*, p. 153.

suggesting, "the inner significance of people and events was beyond his range."[23] Comments by soldiers suggest that he was humane and fatherly.[24] Placing social value this low in the value system seems to contradict much of our learning about Washington. This may be due to two factors. First, early biographers often came close to mythologizing him with stories about cherry trees and silver dollars. Second, his vital role in American history is almost larger than life, and it is difficult to separate him from the "American Way."

(5) **Religious**—The church had an important role in early American society, serving religious and governance roles. Washington attended church about 25% of the time and was a vestryman and warden in his home church.[25] Researchers comment on the lack of religious references in his correspondence or speeches. Authors typically suggest a low religious value, although one researcher suggests that he was a deist with strong religious values evidenced by his concern for religious freedom.[26] Religion had an insignificant role in his decisions.

(6) **Aesthetic**—The lowest value appears to be his view of form, harmony and art. There is little evidence of any concern for art, literature, and other aesthetics. He enjoyed plays, which were a major form of entertainment. His background as a surveyor and his concern for the design of Mt. Vernon suggests, at least, some interest in the aesthetics. Probably the strongest support for this low weight is lack of historical evidence for a higher level.

Table 1 summarizes his value system with that of Gurth's and Taguiri's research on modern corporate managers' value system.

Table 1

Gurth and Taguiri[27]	George Washington
Economic	Political
Theoretical	Economic
Political	Theoretical
Religious	Social
Aesthetic	Religious
Social	Aesthetic

Follower Characteristics

The second major group of characteristics in the leadership model is the follower. What kind of background education and motivation did the

[23]Woodward, op. cit., p. 455.

[24]Dann, op. cit., p. 62.

[25]Woodward, op. cit., p. 228.

[26]Boller, Paul F. *George Washington and Religion*, Dallas, Texas: Southern Methodist Press (1963).

[27]Gurth, op. cit., p. 126.

leaders have? This study of Washington, which is limited to the period up to 1783, will focus on followers in his military activities. His plantations were primarily operated by tenants and slaves, and would be worthy of study, but Washington spent the major portion of his time from age 18 to 43 in military-related endeavors. It is difficult to comprehend the magnitude of his challenges in getting followers to follow. He commented at one point in his early experiences that in the 1750s, with the Virginia Regiment, "he doubted that more than ten of his 150 men would follow if orders came to march."[28]

In studying his followers, we shall also focus on the soldiers and leave the complexities of the officer corps for another effort. Several key factors appear to characterize the American soldiers of 1750 to 1783.

(1) They were typically English-speaking with little education and very few economic resources.[29]

(2) They were unfamiliar with, nor interested in, military discipline which was a constant problem to Washington. Physical discipline was a major motivational tool.[30]

(3) In constrast to their European counterparts, they were quite familiar with weapons and required little or no training in basic skills.[31]

(4) They were pressured to serve in some form at the state or continental level.[32]

(5) Patriotism was not as much a motivating factor as were grievances against England. Infringement on freedom was an issue in early years of the war, while mistreatment of people was a factor later.[33]

(6) Bounties were used as economic motivation. Soldiers were recruited by paying from a $20 bounty up to 100 acres of land.[34]

It would be fair to describe the followers as unskilled; poorly trained; mildly interested in the outcome of the conflict; concerned for their own lives; worried about their crops and homes; impressed with some of the bounties offered; poorly fed, clothed and armed. This brief discussion regarding Washington's followers emphasizes one point—complexity. It would be untenable to suggest that the Continental Army would have survived without leadership of a relatively high order.

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[28]Freeman, op. cit., p. 429.

[29]Palmer, Dave. *The Way of the Fox*. Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press (1975) pp. 27-30.

[30]*Ibid.*, p. 18

[31]*Ibid.*, pp. 11-12.

[32]Flexner, op. cit., pp. 193-196.

[33]*Ibid.*, pp. XIII-XV.

[34]Sears, Robert. *Pictorial History of the American Revolution*. New York: Robert Sears (1848).

Group Characteristics

Analysis of the group characteristics facing Washington, the leader, is primarily a deductive process since the literature seldom focuses on this perspective in a macro-sense. Even with comments in the literature about various status groups in the colonies, the status differences were much less apparent than in Europe.[35] This may be due in part to the sparse population of the colonies. Very few cities exceeded ten thousand in population. English law and language were common. Dissatisfaction with treatment by England, for various reasons, was common. The Puritan ethic of community had an impact in the colonies.

These facts suggest positive and negative group characteristics. First, there is an element of homogenity which encourages cohesion. This resulted from common laws, language and grievances. Second, the relatively small size of the groups encouraged cohesion. Third, the lack of a fixed status system provided an opportunity for military status systems based on merit rather than birth. Fourth, sense of community provided a basis for cohesion, particularly in militia units representing specific areas. Fifth, a common enemy, which individuals held in varying degrees of animosity, provided a major reason for cohesion. England's behavior helped enhance this cohesive variable.[36] The evidence, although slim, suggests that group characteristics may have been vitally important in Washington's success.

Other Factors

Our analysis has stayed fairly close to the model suggested in the beginning of the paper. However, in carrying out the research, several factors did not completely fit the model and deserve specific attention.

George Washington gained a significant level of experience preparing for his role in the Revolution. Experience is of limited value if it does not affect behavior. Freeman suggests that Washington learned the "ABC's of Leadership."[37] He cites ten principle lessons learned in Washington's experiences with the Virginia Regiment and continuing deficiencies that would haunt him later.[38] Evidence reinforces the contention that Washington learned from his experiences and seldom repeated mistakes.

Another factor which often appears in discussions of successful leaders is the theory that external factors explain failure or success of particular

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[35] Palmer, op. cit., pp. 29-30.

[36] *Ibid.*, pp. 34-50.

[37] Freeman, op. cit., p. 369.

[38] *Ibid.*, p. 368-378.

individuals.[39] Some suggest that lack of competent leaders and adequate resources from England resulted in Washington's success. Sufficient evidence is lacking to present a convincing argument for this position.

Summary

This research suggests seven characteristics which contributed most to George Washington's success. It is not practical to rank order these characteristics, although there may be intuitive feelings for one over another.

(1) Tenacity—George Washington exhibited a strong, positive tenacity that shows up continuously throughout his career.

(2) Power—The evidence is almost undeniable that he sought positions of power.

(3) Personality—He appeared to be able to establish trusting relationships with followers and superiors, while also remaining socially distant from them.

(4) Experience—Washington was one of few who had experience and learned from it.

(5) Status—He gained status among his peers which evolved into a charisma, eventually affecting followers in all the colonies and in other nations.

(6) Practical Intelligence—George Washington knew his strengths and limitations and those of his forces, and made decisions accordingly.

(7) Unity of Purpose—His followers felt, at least, some unity of purpose which helped create a basis for cohesion in groups.

It would be inappropriate to suggest this is a definitive analysis of George Washington, the leader. As suggested in the beginning of this paper, it is an initial effort. However, it is an effort which we who study leadership should expand and continue until we develop a reasonably rigorous set of tools to analyze successful leaders. The obvious difficulty in this kind of research is the reliance on the opinions of others in arriving at findings and conclusions. Again, this should not deter us; rather, it should encourage us to sharpen our analysis.

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[39]Dorfman, Peter W. and Howell, Jon P. "Substitutes for Leadership: Test of a Construct," *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 24, No. 4, (Dec. 1981), pp. 714-728.

ABSTRACTS OF MASTER'S THESES AND SPECIALIST IN EDUCATION PROJECTS

A STUDY CONCERNING THE EFFECTS OF SAME AGE PEER TUTORING IN SEVENTH GRADE SOCIAL STUDIES

Jimmy L. Agan (EdS, Middle Grades Education, December, 1982)

This study was designed to compare two methods of instruction, peer tutoring versus no peer tutoring. This study attempted to determine if there would be a statistically significant difference between the mean gain score in subject matter knowledge between two heterogeneous seventh grade social studies classes. The experimental group used same-age peer tutors while the control group did not use peer tutors. The null hypothesis was tested.

A teacher-made diagnostic test was used in the study as both the pretest and the posttest. The pretest was given to both groups during the first week of the 1981-1982 academic school year. In addition to the Slosson Oral Reading Test was administered to each subject in both the experimental and the control groups. The experimental process lasted for the entire 1981-1982 academic year. During the last week of the academic year the posttest was given. At the end of the experiment, mean scores for the pretest and the posttest were computed for both groups.

An analysis of covariance procedure was used to test for difference in mean gain scores between the experimental and control groups in subject matter knowledge. The null hypothesis was accepted.

It was concluded in this study that the use of same-age peer tutoring made no significant difference in the gain of knowledge of subject matter as measured by test scores.

ULTRASTRUCTURAL DEMONSTRATION OF CARBONIC ANHYDRASE IN THE CHLOROPLAST OF *CHLORELLA VULGARIS:* NEW EVIDENCE FOR PHYSIOLOGICAL ROLE

Donald George Aiken (MS, Biology, March, 1983)

Cytochemical procedures were used to determine the precise intrachloroplastic location of carbonic anhydrase (CA) in *Chlorella vulgaris.* Enzyme activity was localized by a cobalt capture reaction, visualized either by amplification of cobaltous ferricyanise with 3,3'-diamino-sulfide. Complete inhibition of staining was achieved in control reactions run either in the presence of 4M acetazolamide or with heat-

treated cells. Inclusion of 3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethyl urea (DCMU) in the ferricyanide solutions did not prevent staining. The reaction localized CA activity within the thylakoid space, contary to the stromal association inferred from biochemical studies of this enzyme in C-3 plants. Considering the suggested role for the enzyme of concentrating molecular carbon dioxide at the site of ribulose-1, 5-bisphosphate carboxylase (RuBP Case) and the suspecyed close association of CA with RuBO Case, this direct localization suggests that at least the first reaction of the Calvin cycle takes place within the thylakoid space of the chloroplast in *Chlorella vulgaris.*

A COMPARISON OF GIRLS' AND BOYS' CAREER AWARENESS AS DETERMINED BY THE GEORGIA CRITERION-REFERENCED TEST

Ronald D. Bailey (EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1982)

The purpose of this study was to determine whether there were any significant differenced between males and females in relationship to their scores on the Career Development area of the Georgia Criterion-Referenced Test.

Test scores on the Career Development area of the Georgia Criterion-Referenced Test of 735 eighth grade students attending the four middle schools of Douglas County, Georgia, were gathered. Chi-squares were computed for the scores of each of the twenty objectives of the test to determine whether there were any differences between males and females. The analysis of variance was computed to determine whether there were sex differences in each of the four categories of the test: Self-understanding, Education, Work and Occupation and Decision-making.

On the following four objections of the test, the chi-square analysis revealed that there were significant differences:

Objective 2: Recognizes how the ability to get along with people affects getting, keeping, and advancing on a job.

Objective 7: Understands that one is responsible for one's own actions and decisions.

Objective 19: Recognizes how a person's friends can influence one's personal decisions.

Objective 20: Can identify important decisions and choices people must face when they plan their careers.

In all four instances, girls had a higher knowledge on the objective than did boys.

On two of the categories—Self-understanding and Decision-making—significant differences were found. These differences indicated that girls had a greater knowledge of these two categories than did boys.

THE EFFECTS OF VERBAL AND NON-VERBAL APPROVAL UPON THE PERFORMANCE OF FIVE-YEAR OLD BOYS AND GIRLS ON THE PEABODY PICTURE VOCABULARY TEST

Judy Guy Baker (EdS, Guidance and Counseling, August, 1982)

This study was an attempt to determine the effects of two modes of test administration upon the performance of five-year old boys and girls on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test. The sixteen subjects used in this study were grouped into two equivalent samples with regard to age and sex. These groups were referred to as Group I and Group II. Each group was assigned to an examiner. Within each group two subgroups were identified in pairs by age and sex as Group A (Approval group) and Groub N (Neutral group). This enabled both examiners to administer the same treatments. Each examiner administered the test to both of her groups. The A Groups were given verbal and non-verbal approval. The N groups were given only neutral treatment.

The treatments were given on the same day but the subgroups were alternated so that neither treatment would be limited to a certain time of day.

The raw data from the test administration was analyzed by the West Georgia Computer Center using a two-way analysis of variance. The level of significance was set at .05.

The results showed a significant difference at the .032 level between the mean numbers of correct responses of a group of five-year old boys and girls who received approval and a group that received neutral treatment on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test. There was no significant difference between the mean number of correct responses of a group of five-year old boys and girls who were tested by Examiner I and those who were tested by Examiner II on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test. No significant difference was found between the mean number of completed items of a group of five-year old boys and girls who receive approval and a group that received neutral treatment on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test. There was also no significant difference found between the mean number of completed items of a group of five-year old boys and girls who were tested by Examiner I and those who were tested by Examiner II on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test. The difference between the mean IQ scores of a group of five-year old boys and girls who received approval and those who received neutral treatment on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test was

significant at the .004 level of significance. There was no significant difference found between the mean IQ scores of a group of five-year old boys and girls who were tested by Examiner I and those who were tested by Examiner II on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test.

It is recommended that similar studies with larger samples and different ages be conducted to reinforce or refute the findings of this study. It is further recommended that similar studies using children from different child-rearing patterns and different social-cultural milieus be conducted.

THE EFFECTS OF THE ONE PARENT HOME AND THE OCCUPATION OF THE HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD ON ON READING ACHIEVEMENT

Evelyn Joyce Boatright (EdS, Early Childhood Education, June, 1982)

This study was designed to determine what, if any, effects home status, sex, and the occupation of the head of household have on reading achievement.

Seven schools were randomly sampled from a total of forty-three elementary schools in a large metropolitan county. Data were collected on all third grade students in these seven schools.

A Multifactor Analysis of Variance was the statistical technique used. The .05 level of significance was used. Five null hypotheses were tested. Determination was made that home status, the interaction of home status and sex, and the interaction of home status and occupation of the head of household did not make a significant difference in the discrepancy between reading achievement and reading expectancy at the .05 level of significance. The results also showed that sex and occupation of the head of household both are significant effects on the discrepancy between reading achievement and reading expectancy at the .05 level of significance.

A CORRELATION STUDY OF NATIONAL TEACHER EXAMINATION SCORES: SCORES IN THE COMMON AREA OF EDUCATION VS. SCORES IN THE SPECIALIZATION AREA OF EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Susanne Corley (EdS, Early Childhood Education, August, 1982)

The purpose of this study was to determine the correlation between the scores of the undergraduates at West Georgia College on the National Teacher Examination in two areas: the common area of education and the specialization area of Early Childhood Education.

The two hypotheses which were tested were:

1. A significant and high correlation beyond .75 (.85) exists between the National Teacher Examination common scores and the Early Childhood Educaton area scores of West Georgia College undergraduates from November, 1973 through November, 1980.
2. There will be a positive increase in the scores of the undergraduates from November, 1973 through November, 1980.

Results of this study showed there was a high and significant correlation between the undergraduates' scores on the two instruments indicating acceptance of the first hypothesis.

Further results of this study showed there was not a positive increase in the scores of the undergraduates on the two instruments from November, 1973 through November, 1980. Therefore the second hypotheses is rejected.

JOB-RELATED STRESS FACTORS AS PERCEIVED BY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN WHITFIELD COUNTY, GEORGIA

Lelia Christie Ewton (EdS, Early Childhood Education, August, 1982)

This study was designed to isolate the job-related stress factors that elementary teachers in Whitfield County, Georgia, perceive as most detrimental to their professional and personal welfare. All regular classroom teachers in kindergarten through fifth grade were asked to fill out the Elementary School Teachers Stress Questionnaire, which was developed for this project.

Seventy job-related stressors were assigned a value of one to five by each respondent, with one indicating the lowest amount of stress the factor has caused the teacher and five indicating the highest amount. A mean for each item was calculated after the questionnaires were tallied. Each item receiving a value of 3.00 or over was considered a high-stress factor.

Each high-stress factor was further analyzed by tables showing the means in relation to professional factors such as the grade level taught, years of teaching experience, levels of certification, and pupil-teacher ratios. In addition, tables were shown which compared the means in relation to personal factors such as the teacher's age, sex, marital status, and whether or not he or she had dependent children at home.

The Pearson Correlation Coefficient test was employed on the data, with the level at which each hypothesis was accepted or rejected being the .05 level of significance or below.

No significant differences were found in the means of the high-stress factors when they were compared by grade level, years of teaching experience, levels of certification, pupil-teacher ration, marital status, and whether or not the teacher has dependent children at home.

Significant differences were found in the means when the ratings of male and female teachers were compared. However, these differences were regarded as suspect because the small number of male respondents may have skewed the data.

Significant differences were found in the ratings of the high-stress factors by teachers of different ages. Teachers aged 21 to 30 perceived less stress from job-related factors on the questionaire than any age group. Teachers in the 31 to 40 age bracket perceived the most stress from the factors. Teachers aged 41 to 50 perceived less stress that those over 51.

SEX DIFFERENCES IN PERFORMANCE OF HIGH SCHOOL SOPHOMORES ON THREE TYPES OF TEST QUESTIONS IN A COLLEGE PREPARATORY BIOLOGY COURSE

Paul E. Greene (EdS, Secondary Education, March, 1983)

The question addressed in this study was whether male students performed differently from female students on recognition questions, association questions, and performance questions contained in subject matter tests in a college preparatory highs school biology course. The subjects of the study were 87 sophomores at Lithia Springs Comprehensive High School in Douglas County, Georgia. The 39 male and 48 female subjects were randomly assigned by computer scheduling into three Cellular Biology 4221 classes taught during the fall quarter of the 1982-83 school year. These three classes were taught by the same male teacher, used the same textbooks, and received comparable laboratory activities.

Each of the six content tests administered to the subjects during the time of the study contained, in addition to other questions, 5 recognition questions, 5 association questions, and 5 performance questions (Collette, 1973). Student performance was measured by determining the number of correct responses on these three types of questions for each male and female subject. The Douglas County Cellular Biology 4221 pre-test was administered to each subject prior to the beginning of formal instruction. The pre-test scores were used to adjust the scores on the content tests for pre-knowledge of subject matter.

The female subjects outperformed the male subjects on all three types of test questions with levels of significance of .007 on recognition questions, .026 on association questions, and .001 on performance questions. Both

groups performed best on the test on Cell Reproduction and worst on the test on Modern Genetics. The levels of significance in each instance exceeded the .05 level established for the rejecting of three null hypotheses:

1. There is no significant difference in the level of performance of male and female students on recognition questions.
2. There is no significant difference in level of performance of male and female students on association questions.
3. There is no significant difference in the level of performance of male and female students on performance questions.

All three hypotheses were, therefore, rejected.

A CURRICULUM GUIDE FOR TEACHING BLACK HISTORY TO KINDERGARTEN AND FIRST GRADE STUDENTS

Diana Hixon (EdS, Early Childhood Education, August, 1982)

This historical research was designed in two parts. One part is an indepth research paper on black historical information on the subject ofr teacher's utilization. The other part refers to a curriculum approach including student activities under the program of studies. The research segment was constructed in such a manner that elementary teachers could teach Black History to their students with confidence and have a resource guide convenient for them to retrieve information as they find it necessary.

WRITING ON READING SELECTIONS VS. WRITING ON EXTEMPORANEOUS TOPICS: A STUDY OF PARAGRAPH WRITING OF SIXTH GRADERS

Jerry Wayne Hollis (EdS, Middle Grades Education, June, 1982)

The purpose of this study was to determine if 40 students in two sixth grade language arts classes at Hiram Elementary School wrote more developed paragraphs when writing was based on standard materials read, studied, and discussed in class rather than when writing was based on extemporaneous topics assigned by the teacher without previous study or discussion.

The students involved in this study wrote three paragraphs based on reading selections read, studied, and discussed in class before the actual writing. They also wrote three paragraphs based on extemporaneous topics assigned by the teacher without any previous discussion before the actual writing.

The paragraphs were scored by the teacher and two independent judges, both teachers of language arts or English. Five dependent variables

(organization, grammar, spelling, capitalization, and punctuation) contributed to the total score which served as the sixth dependent variable. Then, six t-tests were computed on the dependent variables and total scores for the guided paragraphs and the dependent variables and total scores for the extemporaneous paragraphs. The purpose of the t-tests was to determine whether there were or were not significant differences between the sub-scores (awarded for each dependent variable) and total scores for each of the two types of paragraphs.

The results showed that there are significant differences between each dependent variable and the total scores for the guided paragraphs and each dependent variable and the total scores for the extemporaneous paragraphs. According to the results of this study, students in this study wrote more developed paragraphs when they wrote on standard material read, studied, and discussed in class before the actual writing.

Based on the .05 level of significance, each hypothesis tested in this study was rejected. The hypotheses for the organization and grammar subscores and the total scores were significantly higher on the guided paragraphs than they were on the extemporaneous paragraphs. On the other hand, the hypotheses for spelling, capitalization, and punctuation subscores were significantly higher on the extemporaneous paragraphs than they were on the guided paragraphs. Recommendations suggest the need for further studies in this area.

AN EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONALITY TRAITS AND THE ELECTION OF HIGH SCHOOL CHEMISTRY

Patricia Cole Jennings, (EdS, Secondary Education, December, 1982)

The purpose of this study was to determine whether differences exist in personality traits as measured by the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire between (1) girls who elect high school chemistry and those girls of a similar academic background who do not elect high school chemistry and (2) girls who elect high school chemistry and boys who elect high school chemistry. The project was conducted at Carrollton High School, Carrollton, Georgia, during the fall of 1982. College bound eleventh grade students who elected chemistry as a school subject comprised the experimental group and a randomly sampled group of college bound eleventh grade girls who did not elect chemistry were used as the control group.

The Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire and a biographical questionnaire were administered to each student either in the chemistry classroom in large groups or during free school time in small groups.

Percentages were calculated for the biographical information response items and means for each of the personality factors were computed. This information was inspected for apparent differences. The data were subjected to one-way analysis of variance at the West Georgia College Computer Center.

The final analysis supported two conclusions. The eleventh grade academic girls who elected high school chemistry were more self-assured that the eleventh grade academic girls who did not elect chemistry. The eleventh grade academic boys who elected chemistry were more tough-minded and assertive than the eleventh grade academic girls who elected chemistry. The data indicated that students whose fathers had college or advanced degrees were more outgoing, more emotionally stable, more bold, and more relaxed than students whose fathers' education did not extend beyond high school. Students whose mothers had college or advanced degrees were more outgoing and more bold than students whose mothers' education did not extend beyond high school. Students who declared an expected college major of science were found to be more assertive than the group who declared other areas as expected college majors.

READING READINESS AS A FACTOR IN READING ACHIEVEMENT OF FIRST GRADE STUDENTS AT SOPE CREEK ELEMENTARY SCHOOL IN MARIETTA, GOERGIA IN THE 1981-1982 SCHOOL YEAR

Betty Park Lanford (EdS, Early Childhood Education, August, 1982)

The purpose of this study was to compare the scores made on the Metropolitan Reading Readiness Test given to students at the beginning of the 1981-1982 school year to the scores made on the Cobb County Criterion Reference Test (Language Arts, Level Six) given to students at the end of the 1981-1982 school year. Students enrolled in the first grade classes at the Sope Creek Elementary School in Marietta, Georgia during the 1981-1982 school term were used in the study.

The hypothesis stated that there would be no significant correlation between the scores made on the reading portion of the Metropolitan Reading Readiness Test and the scores made on the Cobb County Critertion Reference Test (Language Arts, Level Six) at the .05 level. Results showed a positive correlation between the two tests at the .001 level.

A recommendation was made that more comparative studies between Reading Readiness Tests and Reading Achievement Tests be conducted. It

was further recommended that more research be conducted to determine what factors determine a child's reading achievement.

A COMPARISON STUDY OF MAP AND GLOBE SKILLS AS LEARNED FROM A CONCENTRATED UNIT (TEN CONSECUTIVE DAYS/ONE HOUR PER DAY) OF MAP SKILLS COMPARED WITH A GROUP USING AN INTERMITTENT UNIT (TWO DAYS PER WEEK/ONE HOUR PER DAY/FIVE WEEKS) OF MAP SKILLS

Bonnie Ann Lempke (EdS, Secondary Education, June, 1982)

This research study was designed to report and compare the findings of a research study which was to investigate scientifically what differences, if any, would be found between an experimental group who were taught a concentrated ten hour map and globe skills unit, and a comparison group who were taught the same unit of map and globe skills in an intermittent basis.

Subjects used in the study were students of two sixth grade classes at Red Bud Junior High School with an IQ range of 61 to 118. The experimental group contained thirty-two students, while the comparison group contained twenty-three students. The subjects involved in the study were from two separate Social Studies classes at the same school which is located in a rural area. The subjects of both the experimental and comparison groups were similar in age, sex, and economic status.

The Iowa Tests of Basic Skills, Forms 5 and 6, were used in the study as the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest. A total test score of forty was possible with each correct response recieving one point. The same form of the test was used for the pretest and delayed posttest, while a different form was used for the posttest.

The pretest ITBS, Form 60 over map and globe skills was given to all students involved in this study on March 19, 1982. A posttest (ITBS, Form 5) was given to the experimental group on april 5, 1982 when they had completed the concentrated unit of map and globe skills. The comparison group was given the posttest (ITBS, Form 5) on April 30, 1982 when they had completed the intermittent unit of map and globe skills. Both groups were given the delayed posttest (ITBS, Form 6) on May 19, 1982.

Two null hypothesis were tested by Analysis of Convariance (ANOCOVA). The two null hypotheses were not rejected at the .05 level of significance. Therefore, the amount of time spent on both the concentrated unit and the intermittent unit in this study was not a factor.

Two conclusions were reached as a result of this study: (1) Immediate recall of map and globe skills did not appear to be affected by the method of instruction; and (2) Delayed recall of map and globe skills did not appear to be affected by the method of instruction.

THE PERCEPTIONS OF ADMINISTRATORS AND TEACHERS REGARDING THE IN-SCHOOL SUSPENSION PROGRAM IN THE COBB COUNTY SCHOOLS

Thomas N. Mathis, Jr. (EdS, Educational Administration, June, 1982)

The purpose of this study was to determine administrators' and teachers' perceptions of the in-school suspension program used in the Cobb County Schools. A questionnaire, developed by the researcher, was sent to high school administrators and teachers in Cobb county. Specific data was analyzed by percentage comparisons using the responses of the administrators compared to the responses of the teachers. The study showed that there was a difference in the perceptions of administrators compared to teachers regarding in-school suspension.

A CURRICULUM GUIDE FOR FOUR-YEAR-OLD CHILDREN ENROLLED IN THE FIRST BAPTIST CHURCH KINDERGARTEN NEWNAN, GEORGIA

Jan Gadd Mitchell (EdS, Early Childhood Education, August, 1982)

The purpose of this study was to develop a total curriculum for four-year-old children enrolled in the First Baptist Church Kindergarten in Newnan, Georgia. The program was designed to meet the child's physical, social, and intellectual needs.

A review of literature on child development and curriculum planning and implementation was conducted. An investigation into the needs of First Baptist Church Kindergarten was carried out with interviews being conducted with teachers, kindergarten administrators, and parents of children enrolled.

A curriculum guide entitled *A Big Book on Teaching Little People* was initiated. It included an introduction to the teacher, developmental characteristics of the four-year-old child, a daily schedule, unit plans integrated with the *Bridge-To-Reading* program by Polly Greenberg, and an end-of-the-year evaluation checklist.

At the end of the year, teachers, kindergarten administrators, and parents will evaluate the program and if deemed worthwhile, a similar program will be instituted for three-year-old children.

A COMPARISON OF ATTITUDES OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATORS WITH RELATED VOCATIONAL INSTRUCTION AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATORS WITHOUT RELATED VOCATIONAL INSTRUCTION TOWARD SPECIAL NEEDS STUDENTS IN SELECTED AREAS OF GEORGIA

Berti Lu Reimers Nations (EdS, Special Education, August, 1982)

This study compared the attitudes of vocational educators with Related Vocational Instruction Program support (RVIP) and vocational educators without Related Vocational Instruction Program support toward special needs students in the Griffin and West Georgia Cooperative Educational Service Agency (CESA) Areas in Georgia. Data was collected over a four month period. One hundred forty-eight regular vocational teachers in twenty-two high schools were given the "Mainstreaming Attitude Scale" (MAS). One hundred and twelve vocational teachers responded for a return rate of seventy-five and six-tenths percent. Seventy-seven of these vocational teachers had RVIP support and thirty-five did not. A total score for each respondent was obtained from the "MAS." A t-test for independent variables was used to determine that the vocational teachers with RVIP support had a significantly higher mean score (P= .001) than the vocational teachers without RVIP support. The study concluded that there was a significant difference in the attitudes toward special needs students held by vocational educators that receive RVIP support as compared to the attitudes of vocational educators that do not receive RVIP support.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY IN TWO METHODS OF TEACHING MATHEMATICS PROBLEM SOLVING TO SIXTH GRADE STUDENTS

Carolyn B. Nichols (EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1982)

The purpose of this study was to determine if mathematics problem-solving achievement with sixth-grade students using a four-step method showed a significant difference when compared to the mathematics problem-solving achievement of sixth-grade students using a traditional textbook approach. The experimental group and the control group were each composed of 16 sixth-grade students at Western Elementary School in Coweta County, Georgia. The randomly selected groups were assumed to be equivalent in regard to race, sex, age, socio-economic background, and initial mathematics achievement.

The study consisted of an experiment for eight actual weeks wherein the experimental group was taught mathematics problem solving through the four-step method outlined as follows: (1) Getting to know the problem, (2)

Choosing a plan of attack, (3) Carrying out the plan, and (4) Examining the solution. The control group was taught mathematics problem solving through the use of a traditional textbook approach. Both groups were taught by the researcher during the 1981-82 school year.

Two standarized mathematics achievement tests were used in the pretest/posttest arrangement. The analysis of variance of the gains was used to test the null hypotheses using the .05 level of significance. The findings indicated that the four-step method of teaching mathematics problem solving did not result in a significant difference when compared to a traditional textbook approach. However, there was a significant difference at the .05 level favoring the experimental group in the area of getting to know the problem. In addition, the mean gains on all of the pretest/posttest comparisons were higher for the experimental group, suggesting that the four-step method may have a positive effect on mathematics problem-solving achievement even though the data in this study did not indicate statistical significance.

Based on the findings, observations, and conclusions of this study, the researcher recommends that further studies be made in this area to determine if these same findings hold true under different circumstances.

A DEVELOPMENTAL PROGRAM IN CREATIVE WRITING FOR USE BY STUDENTS OF EASTSIDE SCHOOL (K-4)

Pauline Hodges Peek (EdS, Early Childhood Education, August, 1982)

This study was concerned with the development of a creative writing model for students of Eastside School in Calhoun, Georgia. To accomplish this end, recent related literature was reviewed to provide a background of understanding ans to establish a rationale for the development of the model. The values attained through creative expression were noted in the research of the related literature.

The developed model provided guidelines and suggested activities for use in each of the grades beginning with kindergarten and progressing through grade four. The model recognized the value of creative oral and written expression, applied in many areas of learning, as a means of growth in self-concept and the skills of writing.

A STUDY OF TEACHER STRESS AND BURNOUT REPORTED BY KINDERGARTEN THROUGH EIGHTH GRADE PERSONNEL FROM THE COWETA COUNTY SCHOOL DISTRICT TEACHING IN THE CITY OF NEWNAN

Mary Walton Sandlin (EdS, Educational Administration, August, 1982)

This study was an attempt to determine if any differences existed in the responses of stress factors among teachers in relation to sex, age, years of experience, and grade level taught.

The subjects for this study were 154 teachers employed by the Coweta County Board of Education. These subjects were from eight public schools in Newnan, Georgia, grades K-8. There were 21 males and 133 female teachers serving the 3,345 students. Eighty-five teachers returned the questionnaire, representing 55 percent of those surveyed. This study excluded the rural schools in the county.

A questionnaire was sent to each regular classroom teacher in the eight public schools, grades K-8, in the City of Newnan via the school system's courier. A letter of explanation was included with each questionnaire. The respondents were instructed to complete the questionnaire within two weeks. A self-addressed envelope was included to ensure swift return.

The respondents were to complete the questionnaire by ranking selected events in teaching by the categories (1) Non-Stressful, (2) Minimally Stressful, (3) Moderately Stressful, and (4) Highly Stressful. These events were categorized as Environmental Stressors, Interpersonal Stressors, and Intrapersonal Stressors. The nine stress-relating questions on the questionnaire were used to assess the percentage of teachers who fall into the categories of High Stress, Moderate Stress, and Low Stress.

An analysis of variance was employed on the data to determine if significant differences existed among teachers' responses in relation to age, sex, grade levels, and years of experience. The results did not reveal a significant difference in the responses of stress factors among teachers in relation to these variables. Scores from the nine stress-related questions revealed the following: low stress category - 31%; moderate stress - 50%; high stress category - 19%. However, respondents in this study ranked the following events as highly stressful:

1. overcrowded classrooms	56.6%
2. too much paper work	53.0%
3. apathetic and disinterested students	41.2%
4. inadequate salary	38.8%

The events measured as low stressors were as follows:

1. physical abuse	64.7%
2. poor self-concept	57.6%
3. locked into same grade	54.1%
4. feelings of isolation	51.7%

A STUDY TO DETERMINE THE ATTITUDES OF CARROLL COUNTY ELEMENTARY EDUCATORS CONCERNING THE USE OF VOLUNTEERS IN THEIR SCHOOLS

Paula Wilson Steed (EdS, Early Childhood Education, June, 1982)

Schools are often criticized for not meeting the individual needs of students. With the removal of funds in education for teacher aids and other special teachers, classroom teachers find it difficult to meet the needs of students due to a lack of manpower. The purpose of this study was to determine if the elementary educators in Carroll County favor using volunteers and would support an organized volunteer program.

A questionnaire was developed to determine the attitudes of the elementary educators in Carroll County concerning the use of volunteers in their schools. Three hundred and thirteen survey forms were distributed; two hundred nineteen survey forms were completed and returned. The results showed that educators favor using volunteers and would support an organized volunteer program for their school.

A recommendation was made that the Carroll County Board of Education be made aware of the value of using volunteers and of the attitudes of the elementary educators in Carroll County, in hopes that some general policies would be developed for each school's use. It was further recommended that administrators and teachers form a committee in each school to organize such a program.

A COMPARISON OF IMAGE CLARITY AND IQ SCORES DURING ADOLESCENCE

Sherry S. Warren (EdS, Guidance and Counseling, August, 1982)

This study was designed to determine what, if any, relationship exists between a person's image clarity and his IQ, sex, or race. The null hypotheses stated that there would be no significant difference in image clarity and each of the three factors: IQ, sex, and race.

The subjects of this study were students in grades eight through 10 enrolled in the Coweta County Summer School Program in the Summer of 1982. Sixty students participated in the study: 29 were girls, and 31 were boys; 25 were black, and 35 were white; 16 were sixteen-years-old, 13 were

fifteen-years-old, 15 were fourteen-years-old, and 16 were thirteen-years old.

The subjects were given the Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test to determine their IQ scores. The IQ scores of the 60 subjects ranged from 5[illegible] to 138. Eighteen students scored in the low (below 90) group, 28 students scored in the average (90-110) group, and 14 scored in the high (above 110) group.

To determine the clarity of each subject's imagery, they were given an experimental test similar to Welsh's Differential Imagery Questionnaire. The experimental test consisted of slides of five objects made using varying degrees of focus so that their clarity would correspond to the following scale: (a) not recognizable, (b) barely recognizable, (c) recognizable, and (d) clear and vivid. During the experimental test, subjects were shown an object and asked to form a "mental picture" of that object. They were then to select the slide from the series that was most like their "mental picture" in clarity and to circle the letter of that slide on their answer sheet.

The data were then recorded on data processing coding forms and submitted to the computer center at West Georgia College to compute the **Analysis of Variance**. The level of significance at which the null hypotheses would be rejected was established at .05.

None of the three factors tested attained the .05 level of significance. For this sample, the perception of visual mental images is not directly related to the factors of IQ, sex, or race. Although none of the factors attained the established level of significance, the sex factor came close at .06.

Based on the findings, observations, and conclusions of this study, the researcher submits the following recommendations:

1. This study should be replicated using a spacial test for imagery in place of the experimental test to see if there is a significant difference between males and females.
2. The experimental test used in this study should be correlated with known tests of visual imagery to assure that it does measure the clarity of one's images.
3. This study should be replicated using a younger sample to determine whether clarity of imagers is related to age.

AN EVALUATION OF THE RAND MCNALLY SCIENCE CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENT STUDY SCIENCE PROGRAM

Cheryl Jones Winston (EdS, Middle Grades Education, August 1982)

The purpose of this study was to determine if the Rand McNally Science Curriculum Improvement Study (SCIIS) Science Program has a

significant effect on student achievement in science when compared with a basic textbook-oriented science program. Specifically, the study sought to determine differences between experimental and comparison groups on science achievement test scores after basic or alternative curriculum experiences. The purpose was the basis for the three null hypotheses. The experimental groups and the comparison groups were each composed of 50 sixth-grade students who attended Midway Elementary and Pepperell Middle School in Floyd County, Geogia. With the presence of random sampling, matched I.Q. and age, it was assumed that the four groups were equivalent.

The study consisted of an evaluation that spanned four years (1978-1981), wherein the experimental groups were taught science by use of the Rand McNally SCIIS program. The comparison groups were taught science by use of the basic textbook approach.

A science achievement test, which was a subtest of the **Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills**, was given at the end of each year (1978-1981). The **Analysis of Variance** was used to test the hypotheses. The level at which the hypotheses were rejected was .05 level of probability.

In this evaluative study the findings indicated that the Rand McNally Science Curriculum Improvement Study (SCIIS) Science Program resulted in significant differences in science achievement when compared tothe basic textbook approach. The conclusion can be reached that the Rand McNally SCIIS science approach for teaching science has proven to be significantly superior to the basic textbook approach in increased science achievement as tested by the **Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills**.

Based upon the findings, observations, and conclusions of this study, the researcher submits the following recommendations:

1. This study should be replicated in this present design using samples for the experimental and comparison groups, who have been in the respective curriculums for a period of six consecutive years.
2. This study should be replicated using a larger sampling selection for the experimental and comparison groups.
3. This study should be conducted again to test for correlation between increased science achievement and other subject areas.
4. This study should be conducted again using samples from other ends of the intellegence scale to see if they would benefit from the Rand McNally SCIIS science approach.

Aanstoos, Christopher M.

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